

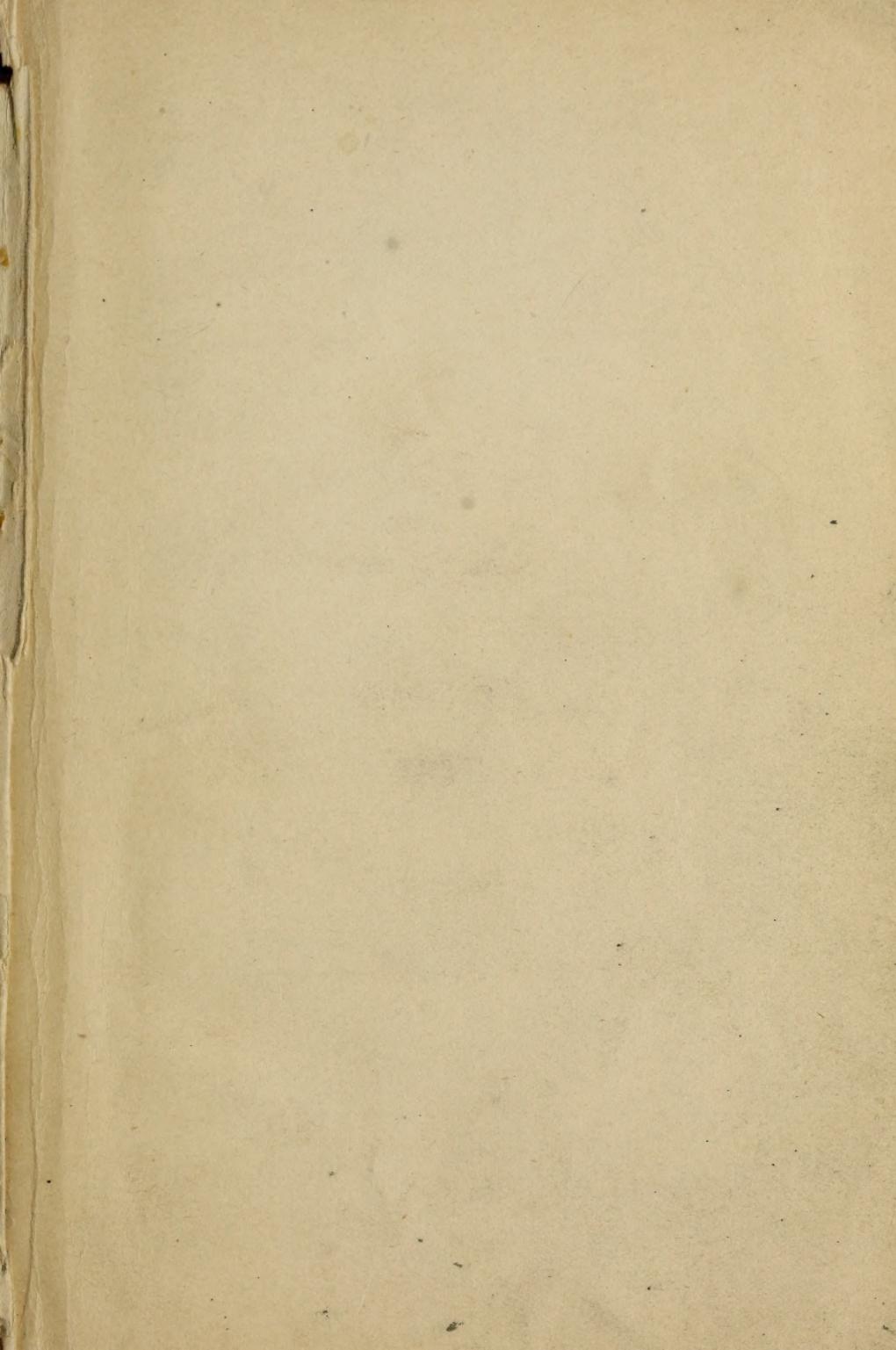


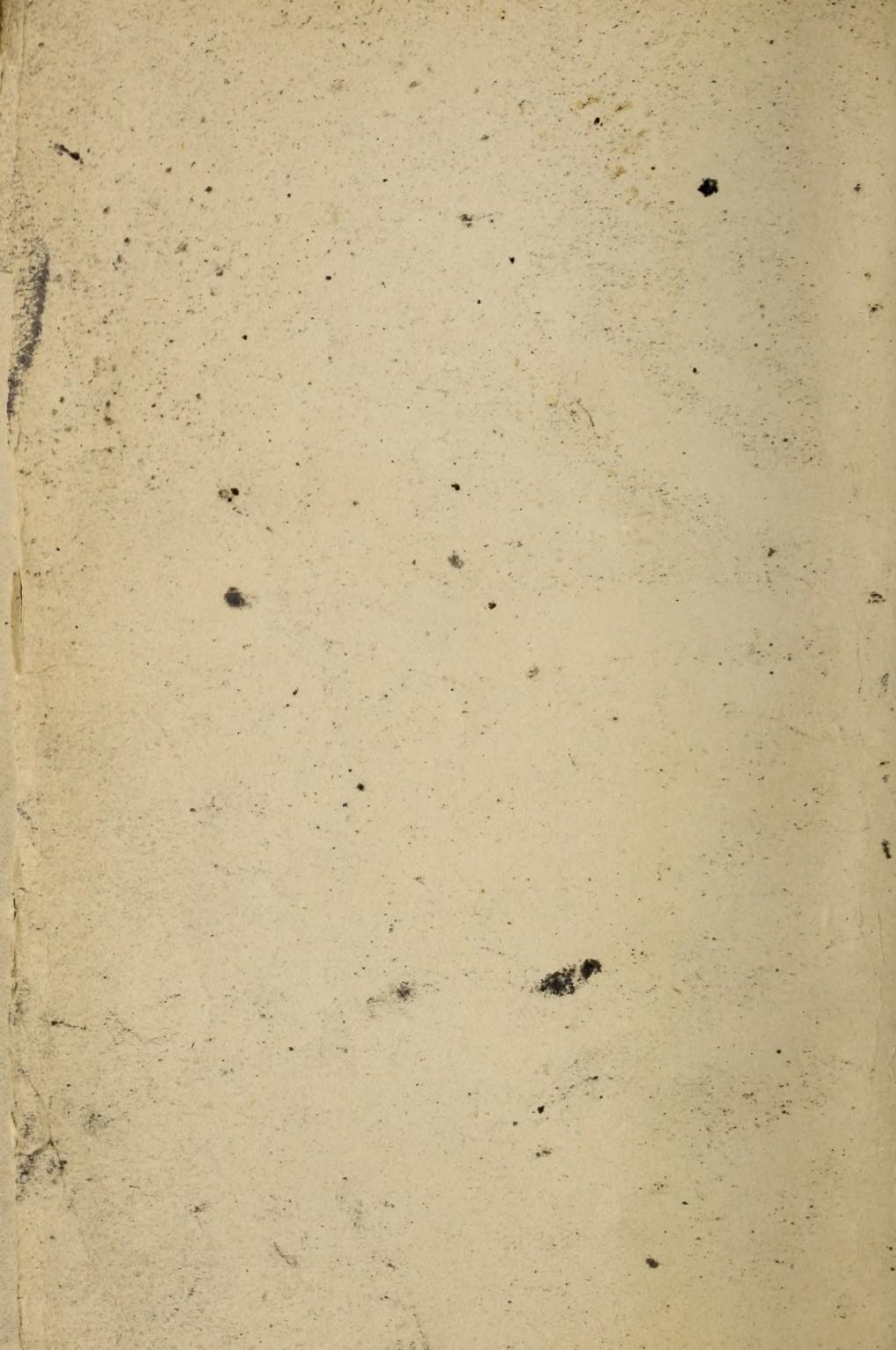
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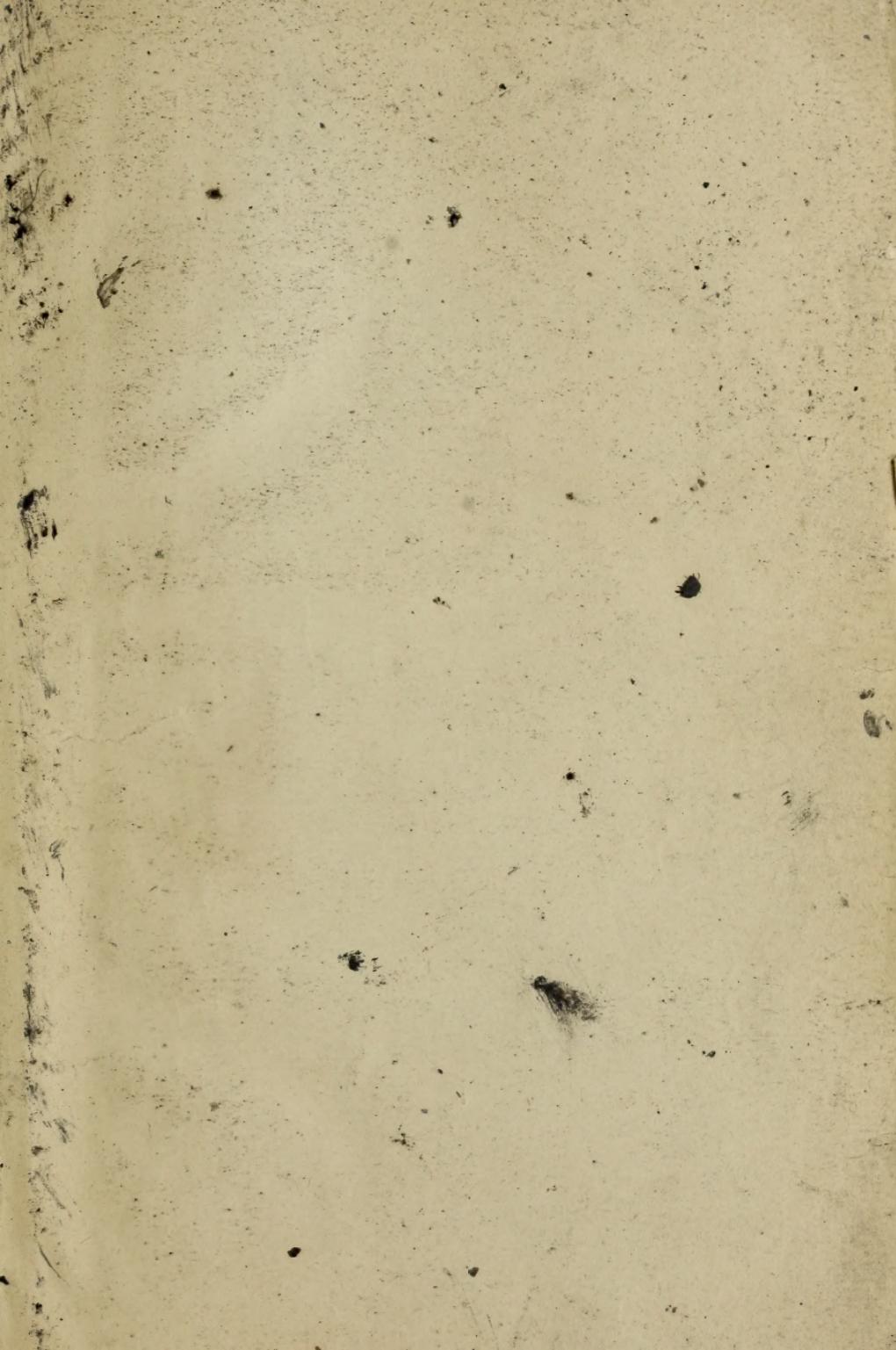
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Gruene, W. F.
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HISTORY OF SOUTH AMERICA



From the First Human Existence
To the Present Time



EMBRACING

Accounts of the Empire of the Chinese Incas, the Japanese Ancient Peruvians, the African Tribes, the Malay Aborigines; of the Spanish Discoveries and Conquests, and the Colonial Times; of the Revolutions and Independence, and the Republics of the Continent, each concluding with a Statistical Report and the work with an Appendix



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P R E F A C E

THE SOUTH AMERICAN continent is nearest ours; it, indeed, is a continuation of North America. As the people of that continent are Americans as well as we are, they call us American brothers. Thus the American brotherhood extends down to Cape Horn and it behooves us to acquire closer knowledge of the southern nations. Their past struggles and their future aspirations concern us.

The so-called prehistoric South America with its mighty works and noble governments, with its epochs of prosperity and decay; the Spanish discoveries and conquests, marred by greed and brutality; the colonial times which bore the character of the middle ages; the tenacious struggle for independence with its heroic deeds and continent-wide campaigns; the modern republics in their endeavors, failing and succeeding, in their struggles with the hierarchical power and in their attempts to steer the ships of state into higher waters: all these furnish historical records which will interest and instruct the English reading public.

The material from which to gain information upon the South American history is voluminous. The most authentic is that which South American writers—each country has its own historians—have gathered. As the author of this work lived and labored in Chile, directing a school and teaching, he has access to the productions of the southern historians and took the material of this work mainly from Spanish histories of Chile, Peru, Colombia, Uruguay, and Argentina.

He did not merely translate; he rather gathered such events as are essential to the history of a country and necessary for his readers to gain full information on a country's history, but he omitted happenings and occurrences that are of importance mainly to the people of the particular countries. Thus he left out records of local im-

portance, undertakings and campaigns which did not result in positive achievements, and he relates events of practical results, occurrences of vital importance, facts resulting in accomplishments and advancements, following, nevertheless, closely the current of events. In this manner he is enabled to offer to the public the complete history of South America, comprising each country, in one volume.

The history of South America is composed of three grand divisions; namely, Primitive South America of 3000 years, of which there are very complete and convincing records; Medieval South America of 300 years, which includes conquests and colonies; and Modern South America of 100 years, which means the breaking loose from old policies and regimes, the making of new states, and the development of the modern republics. It may be an innovation that the contents of each division precedes that division.

The book moreover does not merely give past history but present conditions also, by concluding the history of a particular country with a statistical report on same. Thanks are due Hon. John Barrett, director general of The Pan American Union of Washington, D. C., who provided the author with his booklets on the South American republics from which he prepared the statistical reports. Thanks are also due Bishop Thomas B. Neeley; for from his book on South America valuable suggestions and informations were taken for the appendix which closes this work.

May this history, then, as it deserves, find many friends and may it assist the government and people of the United States in fomenting relations of friendship and commerce with the South American nations.

W. F. GRIEWE, A. M.

DIVISION I

PRIMITIVE SOUTH AMERICA

PRIMITIVE SOUTH AMERICA is that division of South America's history which transpired before the discovery of the new world; it is highly interesting and instructive. The Spanish discoverers found inhabitants wherever they touched the southern shores, inhabitants that belonged to different races and lived in various stages of development and civilization. The dark Caribbeans in the northern section of the continent differed radically from the Peruvian Incas and both from Chile's natives. To study their customs and habits, their works and achievements, their religions and sayings, leads us to happy conclusions regarding their origin and the time of their immigration. The first race which immigrated were South America's aborigines.

In relating Primitive South America we begin with the race the Spaniards found in Peru, in our second period we relate their predecessors, and in the third the forerunners of the latter, or the aborigines. The first will be the last.

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PERIOD I

THE EMPIRE OF THE INCAS

1250 to 1532 A. D.

1. FOUNDING OF THE EMPIRE.

Two hundred and fifty, at the most three hundred years before Peru's conquest by the Spaniards in 1532, hence in the 13th century, there appeared a man among the Aimares, who became very prominent by virtue of his elevated gifts, his noble sentiments, and his ability in civilizing and administrative activities. This man was *Manco Capac*, who claimed to be married to his sister, called *Mama Oello*. The Aimares lived on the elevated plateau of the Andes mountains, north of lake Titicaca. This lake, lying on the limits between Peru and Bolivia and at an elevation of 13,000 feet above sea level, is the highest body of water of its size. It has a length of 115 miles, a width of 30 to 60 miles, and its greatest depth is 660 feet; it is dotted with islands. The mountain streams that empty into lake Titicaca constitute one of the river systems of Peru.

Manco Capac and Mama Oello claimed to have come forth out of the lake. They also pretended to have been sent by the sun, which they held to be their father. As children of the sun they had come to the Aimares to teach them his will and laws, and to instruct them in arts and sciences. The national god of the Aimares, or rather of the Ancient Peruvians, was Pachacamac, whom they used to worship as the invisible creator of heaven and earth. Manco announced the sun to be the visible representation of Pachacamac. He and his sister-wife had received the order from their god to settle down at that place where a golden ax (according to some a magic wand) which he carried with him, might freely sink into the soil. With this command they had

wandered from Puno on the lake in a northwesterly direction, till they had reached the plain of Cuzco, where they wished to stay, because there they had succeeded to drive their scepter into a hill with ease. Manco Capac announced to the inhabitants of the plateau the mission for which he had come upon the earth. To convince them of the truth of his words, he and his sister-wife dedicated themselves to the welfare of the people, leading at the same time spotless lives. They exercised a remarkable unselfishness by treating the people kindly and by showing them how to make life comfortable. For Manco Capac showed the men how to till the soil and to build houses, while Mama Oello taught the women how to spin, to knit, and to sew.

In this way they gained the confidence and affections of the people, who by and by were led to believe that the man and woman were truly divine. The Aimares then became willing to subdue themselves in all things, that they might be made happy, rendering them perfect obedience, and then proclaimed Manco Capac lord of the land. Thereby the government of the *Incas* was established. Their territory at this beginning was limited in the east by the river Paucartambo and in the west by the river Apurimac; both rivers at their conflux form the Ucayali, which after a flow of 1000 miles empties into the Amazon. This territory had a length of thirty and a width of eighteen miles and contained over a hundred towns. The ruler accepted the title of Inca, which means son of the sun.

The rumor of the Inca soon spread into all directions. His subjects praised him among the neighboring tribes and did not grow weary in speaking of his divine mission and of the benefits they received through him. The consequence was that those tribes in the course of time also became submissive to the Inca. The population of his domain having increased considerably, he founded the capital, which he called Cuzco, i. e. center, navel. It having become his intention to erect a

temple to his pretended god, the sun, the rich *Coricancha*, i. e. place of gold, described on page 14, was built and became an ornament of his residence.

From this simple account of the founding of the Inca empire we must conclude 1st that Peru was inhabited before this founding; 2nd that the ancient Peruvians of the plain of Cuzco, at the time of this founding, appear to have stood on a low plane of civilization; — in former times, as we shall find, they had enjoyed a higher degree of development —; and 3rd that the founders of the Inca regime were superior to the Aimares in respect to personal qualities and practical ability, and that they brought a new religion. The Inti, or sun-god, religion was foreign to the ancient Peruvians. The names Inti, sun-god, and Inca, sun-son, appear to have derived from the old Chinese language. For the Chinese god Shang-ti, or Shian-ti, was a sun-god, too, and the title of the Chinese emperor Thian-tse designated him as a heaven-son.

The statutes and regulations related on the following pages are in their essential parts attributed to the founder; they, nevertheless, have been enlarged and completed during the almost three centuries of the dynasty.

2. RELIGIOUS STATUTES OF THE INCA EMPIRE.

Manco Capac, the pretended sun-son, introduced the *Inti-religion*, the worship of the sun. In this endeavor he succeeded without serious obstacles, the sun being the source of the numerous benefits which man enjoys, bringing forth the rich harvests for men and the green pastures for the herds. The worship of the pure, bright, all enlivening sun, rising and setting daily, will have elevated the sunken minds of the Ancient Peruvians. This, doubtless, is a secret cause of the extraordinary success of the Incas. Special worship they also rendered the moon, Killa, thought to be the wife and sister of the sun; Venus, thought to be her page; and also the rain-

bow, lightning etc., which, according to their notions, sallied forth from the sun-god. The stars were adored as the courtiers of the two principal deities.

The Inti-religion supplanted, at least partly, the old religion of the Ancient Peruvians, which taught to worship god Pachacamac and some other principal deities, as also many subordinate, especially domestic, gods, called Chancas. All these gods and deities were represented by golden, silver, wooden, and stone figures. In former times Pachacamac had been worshiped as the invisible creator of the universe and had not been represented in visible forms. This causes us to presuppose that the Ancient Peruvians formerly had the idea of monotheism. But at the time when the Incas immigrated, those people had lost the idea of one invisible god, had brought Pachacamac down into the realms of visible deities, represented him in figures, and worshiped him as an idol. In Ancient Peru polytheism was thoroughly incorporated. The Incas left the people their religion for personal and domestic purposes; for all public occasions, however, the Inti-religion was observed. This same principle, the introduction of the new religion for the state, for public occasions, and the retention of the old religion for private life, they observed, too, in the conquests of other tribes. Thus they exhibited high political wisdom and considerations.

The *oldest temple* which was dedicated to the worship of the sun, was built on an island of lake Titicaca, out of which, according to tradition, the founders had come forth, wherefore special reverence was shown this temple. The most celebrated and richest temple, however, was the *Coricancha* in Cuzco. Although it was only a rectangular stone structure of large dimensions constructed roughly and although it was only thatched, in the matter of gold ornaments it doubtless superceded anything that has existed since those times. The walls and the roof were covered with gold plates; the cornices were plated with gold; the doors, seats, and niches were golden;

and at the west end of the inside of the temple a gold plate was suspended, on which the picture of the sun was engraved. The temple's length extended from east to west, the main entrance being at the east front. When the glorious illuminator of the day rose above the heights of the eastern Andes and sent his first pure rays over the plateau; when the sun's rays entered through the eastern door into the Coricancha, falling on the gold plate, suspended above the altar and bearing its picture; when the golden sun light was reflected from the gold plates and utensils in a thousandfold brilliancy and filled the temple; — then the assembled people broke out in exclamations over the glory of their god. But the most remarkable, says La Rosa Toro, was the artfully arranged garden, bordering the Coricancha, in which the shrubs, bushes, trees, and animals were made out of massive silver and gold; and even the tools, used to work the garden, were of gold and silver. Round about the Coricancha were other temples built of silver, one for the worship of Killa, the lunar goddess, others for the stars, the rainbow etc. Several buildings, pertaining to the temple, though separated from it, were dwellings of the servants. Besides the Coricancha there were other subordinate temples in Cuzco. And each province and larger city possessed a sun-temple. Of these the most celebrated was the temple Pachacamac in the valley of Lurin, near Lima, which formerly had been dedicated to Pachacamac, but which now was used as a temple of the sun.

The personnel of the cult consisted of men and women. The superior priest *Huilca Uma* was either a brother or an uncle of the ruling Inca. The other priests were selected from the nobility and stood in high regard. Those who were of the imperial family either served in the temple at Cuzco or went as superiors to other Inti temples of the empire. The priests did not constitute a privileged class, nor were they distinguished from other folks by an official garb. Nevertheless, they had much power with the people, for these held

them to be their mediators between themselves and their gods. The people entrusted the guidance of their consciences in a certain degree to them and consulted them often in regard to the future. According to the oldest historians there were temples with 30,000 priests.

There were females associated with the priests in the services of the temples. They were chosen from the nobility or from the most beautiful of the people and were called *sun-virgins*. With each Inti temple throughout the land an institution for the training of virgins was connected, which was in charge of an older virgin, called *mamacona*. An officer was commissioned in each province to select from the girls below eight years, without considering the number, such as had, in his judgment, good gifts and attractive appearances, and to place them into the institution of his province. The mamaconas dedicated themselves to their education. Having reached the age of thirteen or fourteen years, those who had distinguished themselves most were brought to the mother institution at Cuzco. The most virgins of this institution were princesses of imperial families. Their duties were very different. Some dedicated their virginity to the service of the Inti-religion, others became concubines of the emperor or wives of high noblemen, still others were given in marriage to Curacas. As long as the virgins remained in the institutions, they had to attend to certain duties; namely, to make very fine robes for the idols and the emperor, to kindle the sacred fires, to bake cakes of cornmeal, which they served together with chicha (cider) at the religious festivals, where the best of the land met. It has been intimated, that the weakest virgins were sacrificed to the gods; but this cannot be verified, nor is it acceptable when we consider the fact, that the Incas firmly prohibited the human sacrifices of the Ancient Peruvians and punished, with all severity, those who still persisted in the practice. Nor is it admissible, that the virgins were used for illegitimate purposes, as has been as-

serted. This assertion we emphatically negate. Unchastity in the case of a virgin was punished by burying her alive, and the seducer was strangled. Even friends and country men of the guilty were often made to suffer capital punishment.

Four main festivals were annually celebrated in the solstices and equinoxes; one at the beginning of each season. The most sacred festival was Inti's birthday, called *Inti Raimi*, and was celebrated June 22nd of each year, when the days begin to get longer in Peru. For the celebration of this festival the entire nobility of the empire assembled in Cuzco, the capital. With the dawn of the great day the ruling Inca and the whole imperial family took their seats on the most prominent public place in the city. The noblemen and their families also assembled there, while the common people filled the streets. Scarcely had the first solar rays illumined the peaks of the Andes, when the assembled people raised an immense cry to greet their god. The body of the sun becoming visible, all sat down upon the earth to worship. Prayers having been said, the Inca rose, holding in each hand a golden cup filled with chicha. The cup in the right hand he emptied into a receptacle also of gold, through which the liquid flowed in subterranean channels into the Coricancha. Then he drank a little from the cup of the left hand and gave the members of his family also to drink. The nobility and people followed the example. The libation having ended, a solemn procession was begun, which terminated by entering the Coricancha. The people took the covering from their feet two hundred steps before the entrance, while the imperial family did so in the temple. There short prayers were said before the golden picture of the god and a few offerings were brought, whereupon the whole assembly returned in solemn procession to the plazas to bring more offerings — animals, seeds, incense, and jewels. The Calpurical observed the intestines and lungs of the sacrificed animals to predict coming events, while the

virapircos observed the sacrificial smoke for the same purpose. After the sacrifice the feast began. The llama is a very useful domestic animal in Peru's mountainous country and was not killed in common life to supply the family with meat. However, at the public festival llamas were killed and their meat consumed. At the annual festival in question large quantities of llama meat, chicha, and zancu, cakes baked from cornmeal, were distributed among the people. Merry dances brought the festival of Inti's birth to a close.

The second sun-festival, *Citua Raimi*, was celebrated in September, at the beginning of Peru's spring. This was a festival of purification, initiated by fasting and a bath in the night preceding the festive day. Balls made of sacred bread and moistened or mixed with sacrificial blood, were cooked in kettles and sent to all the temples and to the Curacas. A Curaca was a native official who ruled over 10,000 inhabitants. The people rubbed themselves with sacrificial blood. A sun-messenger armed with weapons sallied forth from the Inca palace and commanded four other messengers to chase all evils away. The latter, thereupon, ran through the streets, making a great noise. A torch parade in the evening concluded the second annual festival.

The third festival, *Capac Raimi*, occurred in December, on the third day of the Peruvian summer, and the fourth, called *Paucar Huaray*, was observed in March, on the first day of autumn. Besides this festive cycle monthly celebrations were held. In July large quantities of chicha were poured, with religious significance, into irrigation channels and rivulets to the end that plenteous water might flow for the irrigation of the fields. In August the endeavor was made to avert diseases during the ensuing year, by observing certain ceremonies. And they celebrated important occasions; e. g. the birth of a prince, the examination and arming of the young Incas, a great victory, etc. New born children received a special bath, conjuring words were pronounced over

the dying. Whenever the name scipas (devil) was uttered, they spit on the ground, to despise the evil one. To hinder the rainbow from entering their bodies they closed the nostrils with clay.

3. CIVIL REGULATIONS OF THE INCA EMPIRE.

The founder accepted the theories, that the monarchy be hereditary, that the oldest son of the ruling Inca be heir to the throne, and that he take one of his sisters for his legitimate wife. As empress she was called coya. The emperor with his coya, with the mother queen, his concubines, all his children, and the families of deceased Incas constituted *the imperial family*. The emperor was the patriarchal head of this extended family circle, actually consisting of a number of families. Besides the imperial family there were among the nobility other Incas and their families, who together with the first named constituted the generation of Incas. These counted 6000 to 7000 persons and had the controlling power. Hence the name "Inca" is first the title, not the proper name, of the ruler; secondly it is the name of the entire house or generation of Incas, in so far as they distinguished themselves from the Ancient Peruvians. However, among the latter there were also men of official standing, called *Curacas*. All the Incas lived in the greatest abundance and splendor. For the products of a part of the lands which the people cultivated were for their use, although the so cultivated land was not their property. It was, namely, a characteristic of this dynasty that the new emperor came to the enjoyment of the income of his predecessor, but not to the possession of properties; for nobody owned real estate, even not the emperor, though all the Incas enjoyed the products of the lands, designated and reserved for them. When an Inca took up the reins of government, he ordered the erection of a palace for himself and immediate family and had it adorned and decorated in harmony with his dignity. The palace was for his use only, and

not his property. From the Inca generation proceeded the most prominent religious, political, and military leaders. They spoke a language which the other noblemen and the people did not understand.

The nobility was composed of two classes; to wit, the first class consisted of the Incas, who had founded and extended the empire, were influential and stood in high esteem; the second class of noblemen was composed of such Ancient Peruvians as had distinguished themselves through personal merit and of such curacas (chiefs) of subdued nations and tribes as were of good report among their own people. Though the Incas permitted the curacas to retain the positions they had held before the conquest, yet they placed them under the vigilance of the imperial supervisors of the respective province. They were carefully watched, because some had revolted against the mild Inca government and had provoked bloody revolutions.

The common people consisted of all those folks that did not belong to either of the two classes of nobility or to the priesthood. They were agriculturists, artisans, and servants. Bondsmen, serfs, or slaves apparently were not known in the empire of the Incas. Conquered tribes were not subjugated; they were rather quickly incorporated in the empire and treated as citizens with equal rights. Instead of pressing the conquered into bondage, their lot was usually greatly improved; for they passed, in the course of time, from a barbarous to a semi-civilized state of existence.

The division of cultivated lands was the basis of the *communism*, which had been initiated at the beginning of the Inca history and which, doubtless, is the best realization of socialistic thought, which history can record. Nobody was owner of real estate, neither members of the imperial family, nor noblemen, nor any of the common people. No one could buy land or acquire it in any other way. In harmony with this principle the cultivated lands were divided into four divisions.

The products and harvests gathered from the first division were for the priests and the sun-virgins; those of the second division were for the widows, the orphans, and the helpless; those of the third division were for the people themselves. Each man worked the land assigned to him, but with the common obligation of assisting the neighbor when circumstances might demand it. Lastly they cultivated the lands of the Inca. This was done with great ceremony by the whole population and in a body. At break of day they were summoned by a proclamation from some neighboring tower or eminence, and all the inhabitants of the district, men, women, and children, appeared dressed in their gayest apparel, bedecked with their little stores of finery and ornaments, as if for some great jubilee. They went through the labors of the day in a happy mood of mind, chanting their popular songs which commemorated the heroic deeds of the Incas. They regulated the movements of the labor by the singing of which the word *haili*—victory—was usually the most important. So the day glided peacefully away under the direction of an Inca. The emperor used his income but partly to meet his own expenses which were numerous, the other parts went to the general needs of the empire and to cases of public misfortune. As the people were not owners of lands, so no one owned the dwelling in which he lived, or the herds, or, as it seems, even the furniture and tools. The herds of llamas and alpacas were the country folk allowed for use only; the animals belonged to the priests and the emperor. Under no pretext was a citizen permitted to dispose of animals. Everything was property of the state, the people were his obedient members.

The occupation of the people was in every particular planned and prescribed by officials. Idleness, the present characteristic of the Peruvians and of many other South Americans, was completely banished from the empire of the Incas. Everybody worked; even the children and old people, the lame, blind, and cripple labored according to their ability.

The women were at times exempt from outside labors. The toil in the fields; the public labors, such as on roads, at bridges, and forts; the occupation of miners, of herdsmen, weavers, potters, mail-carriers, workers in metals,—in fact every action proceeded according to the regulations of higher authorities. Even the occupations were chosen for certain persons, whereby, however, regard was had for individual inclinations. Still more, the time of work, the manner of dressing, and the meals were officially regulated. Was not the supervision of the state carried too far and did it not hinder the individual action and the liberty of the people? But did not the communistic life necessitate such a tutorship? Hence, if we want communism we must accept supervision and regulation.

Agriculture was the chief occupation in the empire of the Incas. Sr. La Rosa Toro, the present day historian of Peru, from whom we gain much of our information on that country, writes: "The land was then more generally cultivated than in our times. All the valleys of the coast which lie dry in our days were traversed by canals and ditches which conducted the water for irrigating the rainless regions often more than twenty miles. In the sandy coastlands to which no water could be conducted, cisterns of various depths were dug that water might accumulate and be used for irrigating the arid lands, as may be seen, on the plains of Pisco still today. The irrigation canals, of which many remnants are still existing, were grand. The most celebrated are those of Nasca which are in use to-day and on which the fruitfulness of the Nasca valley depends. If all open or subterranean canals, dating from the times of the Incas, were at present in use, Peru's agriculture would necessarily flourish."

All the valleys and ravines of the Andes were under cultivation; mountain sides and slopes were leveled in terrace-like form and then cultivated. Agriculture was esteemed of such importance that no village was allowed to be established,

or even a house to be built, where land could be cultivated. The fields were manured with guano, i. e. excrement of sea-birds, which they found on the coast and on neighboring islands. The principal products of the Inca times were corn, potatoes, bananas, the freely used red pepper, cotton, Adam's apples, coca, agaves, ananas. The modern plow was not known. To work the ground they used a long pole, to which cross-beams were fastened; they worked this apparatus with both hands and feet. The emperor himself cultivated a piece of land at Cuzco with a golden plow-share, likely for the purpose of setting a good example to his country men, but also to continue an old custom of his people. It is related by good authority that the custom existed in China 600 years before Christ. The Chinese emperor then was believed to be the son of Thian, i. e. of the sun-god and once a year would plow the ground before the assembled people. As the Inca-emperor did likewise, we have also in this rare usage an indication which points to the relation of the Incas to the Chinese.

The Peruvian people carried on many *trades*. They gained precious metals in surprising quantities and displayed a never heard-of splendor of gold. Besides gold, silver, and copper, the mines furnished iron, tin, quicksilver, etc. They, however, understood to work the three precious metals only. The smelting of silver metals was performed by means of large portable ovens, called huayras, having many holes on the sides through which the air rushed with such force as though it were forced in by bellows. Iron, the most useful metal of the present age, was not unknown to the Peruvians; they, however, did not understand how to treat it. Their tools, axes, chisels, tongs, etc., they manufactured from quartz, copper, and a kind of bronze, prepared by themselves. The saw and plane were not known to them. — The art of building was still in its infancy; it did not yet furnish any pillars, columns, railings, arches. Lately, however, fragments of relief-work with figures have been recovered. The dwellings in the mountainous

regions were principally built of stone, those in other regions of adobes and reeds; and they were covered with rushes and straw and in rainless regions with clay. Instead of nailing the timbers, they tied them together with ropes. The entrances to the dwellings were low, the doors being made of skins, cloth, or reeds. Windows were rare. However, the palaces, temples, and the houses of the sun-virgins required more art and had windows. The Inca palace at Cajamarca contained an apartment which had four vaults and the residence of an Inca in Quito was cylindrical. Some palaces and forts had staircases. The structures throughout the empire were plain, firm, and symmetrical. The stone cutters and polishers furnished rectangular and polygonal stones for buildings. They fitted without mortar so closely and exactly one to the other that the joinings could scarcely be noticed.

THE MASONRY OF THE INCAS.

Mr. Squier, who made detailed investigations in Peru, describes it as follows:

"Many walls are massive and imposing and are constructed from hard and heavy stones. The walls of the front building of Inca Roka's palace, which fronts the triumphal street of Cuzco, are of solid, fine syenite stones. Some of them weigh various tons and are joined together with remarkable exactness. As a rule the palaces and temples were built around an inner court. Since they had only one entrance and, with few exceptions, no windows in the outside walls, their exterior had the appearance of an uninterrupted mason-work. The entrance was in all cases wide and high, so that a rider could enter without difficulty. The lintel was regularly a heavy slab in which, as also in the posts, figures were engraved, among which serpents were the most usual.

"The walls of these structures incline a little inward and some grow narrower towards the top. Those in Cuzco are hewn out of brown, roughly grained trachyte, which allows a

closer joining of stone than any other kind. The stones in the structures vary in length from one foot to eight feet and in thickness from six inches to two feet. Being placed in regular layers, the larger stones generally forming the lower layers and the walls getting thinner as they rise, they make a very pleasing appearance of gradation. The grooves are all hardly noticeable. They are of an exactness unknown in our architecture; the remains of antique structural art, which I saw in Europe, do not approach them. The reports of old writers, that the stones of many buildings were joined together with such precision that impossibly the thinnest knife-blade or the finest needle could be inserted, may be considered as very correct. The world has nothing to show up in the line of stone cutting which surpasses the exactness and ability with which the Inca structures at Cuzco were erected. In the buildings, I describe, there is no cement, or mortar of any kind, or the slightest evidence that any had been applied. The architects of the Inca times depended on the precise fitting of the stones, not on mortar, to obtain durability of the buildings. These buildings, unless unusual forces will destroy them, will still stand when the capitol at Washington, D. C. will have sunken into dust and when Macaulay's New Zealander will, from the crumbled arches of London's bridge, look down upon the ruins of St. Paul's cathedral.

"Almost all the rooms of an Inca house had the entrance from the inner court. As a rule there were no doors between the rooms and each room seems to have served a special purpose. But there were also rooms which could only be reached by going through a number of other apartments. These hidden rooms were probably dedicated to religious exercises or they were secret hiding quarters for the timid and the weak. Many rooms were large. Gareilaso, the Inca descendant who wrote the history of his own people, describes rooms of such enormous dimensions, that each could hold sixty riders and afford them sufficient space to exercise with lances. Three

sides of the large central plaza were occupied by as many enormous buildings, in which religious and other ceremonies were performed. Each of them was spacious enough to hold a thousand persons. A few of them were actually two hundred steps long and fifty to sixty steps wide and could hold three thousand persons. Prescott and others have described all Inca buildings as of one story, low, and without windows; but there were houses in Cuzco that were thirty-five to forty feet high, up to the purlin. And we know there were residences and temples two and three stories high, also that they had windows, suitable to lighten up the interior."

Fine arts remained undeveloped. The statues were grotesque figures, whose legs and arms were glued on. The artists dedicated themselves mostly to the production of golden, silver, wooden, and stony idols and to the formation of earthen or clay vessels, to whom they gave the form of men, animals, and fruits. — The weavers manufactured excellent dress goods from wool, cotton, and a kind of straw. The softness of the fine stuffs which the Spanish conquerors brought to Europe, drew the attention of the Europeans upon these manufactures. Even the king of Spain did not disdain to wear goods which the Inca princesses had woven. In the year 1891 a number of skeletons were recovered which had been wrapped in such fine stuffs of the times of the Incas, that the discoverers marvelled at their excellency. And finally, those people were skilled in dyeing. They dyed the woven stuffs red, green, yellow, blue, and black; still now these colors may be found in the burial places of this people. The red color they gained from a small snail and from the cochineal.

Domestic as well as public life in the empire was spent amidst manifold changes and diversions. The Peruvian was melancholy and respectful, mild and humble, obedient and reserved, and also hospitable. All marriages in the Inca empire were celebrated on one and the same day of the year, the national wedding day and a genuine holiday of the people.

The matches had to be made according to directions within the extended family, i. e. within the friendship circle, and usually, in some sections always, in accord with the taste of the superiors. No young man was allowed to marry before his twenty-fifth year and no young woman before her eighteenth. The very simple wedding ceremony was performed in the imperial family by the emperor himself, by taking the couple by the hands and declaring them husband and wife. The same ceremony was observed on the public plazas of the cities and villages throughout the land, where the officials joined the bridal pairs in holy wedlock, all on the same day. Thereupon the people indulged in festivities and jolifications for several days. While the common man had one wife only, the noblemen lived in polygamy.

For every young couple a house was built at the expense of the government and to them a piece of land was assigned for cultivation as the law prescribed. This piece was less than an acre for one man. The houses in which the common people lived had one or two rooms. The furniture and utensils naturally were plain; they were beds of skins, large earthen pots and jugs, jars of different sizes and shapes, dishes, plates, and bottles, looking glasses and combs, spinning apparatus and looms. — Only two regular meals were customary during the day. Rev. Cappa writes on this point: "The Peruvians were prohibited to prepare extraordinary meals; but they were invited two or three times a month to dine with the provincial superiors at public tables, where selected food was served."

Among *the popular diversions* dance and the intemperate use of chicha—cider—were pre-eminent. They danced and drank at all domestic occasions and public events; to wit, at the birth of a child or the death of a friend, at the departure or return of a relative, at the time when the hair of the one year old boy was cut for the first time and when he became of age, for the sake of peace and of war. Besides dancing the

Peruvians enjoyed themselves at solving of riddles, at playing of ball and at dice, at running races and at fighting. The last two diversions were arranged in the month of January. In December military sham battles were fought in the presence of the emperor, who rewarded with prizes those who distinguished themselves most through bravery and gallantry.

They buried *their dead* on natural or artificially erected hills, called huacas. In these hills they made excavations which they lined with poles and reeds and in which they entombed the remains together with clothes, food, jewels, and domestic utensils. They did not lay the corpse in a coffin and bury it, but placed it in a truncated cone in a sitting position. Innumerable skeletons sit in those subterranean vaults, the arms crossed over the breasts, faces and feet penetrating the cones. The deceased Incas were embalmed and entombed in the Coricancha of the capital. After the lapse of many years these mummies had still retained a soft skin. The corpse of Inca Huayna Capac was transported from Quito, where he died, to Cuzco for the purpose of entombment. While friends and relatives carried their dead to the huaca, they sang songs relating to their deeds and virtues. They believed that the souls of the Incas went to an upper world, while those of the others went to a lower world. They believed in a future life, in the recompense of the good and the punishment of the wicked, and in the end of the world.

The popular language of the Inca empire was the *Kechua*. This was not the language which the Incas had brought into Peru and which they spoke; they did not introduce a new language, though they had introduced the Inti-religion. We may record what Sr. La Rosa Toro, the contemporaneous historian of Peru, reports on this point. He writes: "The Incas and their families — the Inca generation — spoke a dialect which the rest of the nobility and the people did not use. Therefore this language lost itself, as soon as the close relatives of the Incas had disappeared, namely after the first or

second generation after the Spanish conquest." The Kechua must have been the language of the Aimares, among whom the Incas settled. From the plain of Cuzco they spread this language, with the extension of their territory, over all Peru and to the bordering countries beyond. Before the Incas had come the various peoples of the Ancient Peruvians spoke diverse dialects, with which the Kechua mixed as it spread. Thus a number of dialects of the Kechua were developed; the one spoken in Cuzco and vicinity must have been the purest. The Kechua language is soft and very sentimental in expression and rich in inflections. Its declensions and conjugations are similar to the Latin. An unwritten grammar existed which was taught verbally. Instruction in the language was actually given, although they had neither a written nor a printed language. The Kechua is still generally spoken by the natives of the extended tablelands of Bolivia, where they constitute the main portion of the population, and by the natives of Peru.

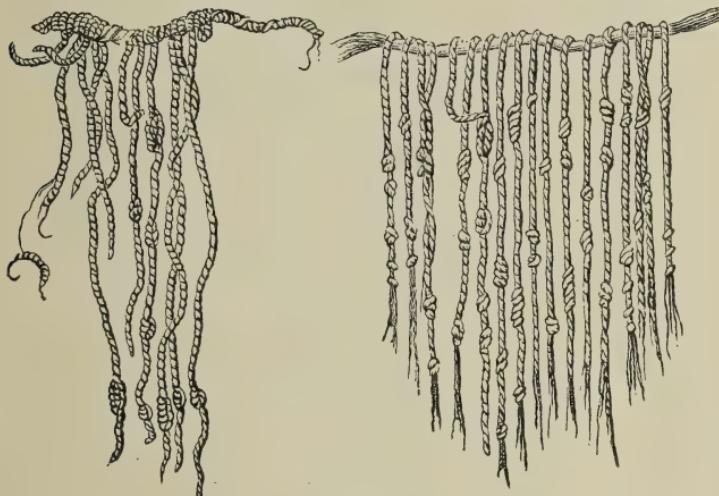
A systematic instruction existed only for the princes and the sons of the nobility; the boys of the common people had no access thereto; for the girls there were no schools. Various emperors took an interest in the instruction of the boys. It is said of emperor Pachacutec that he had his palace erected near a schoolhouse and did not think it below his dignity to give instruction. The schools were conducted by wise men, called Amautas, who instructed orally, not having books. The amautas instructed their Inca and noble pupils in good behavior, that they might acquire pleasing manners; in virtue, that they might live respectfully and honorably and know later in life how to manage their families and to raise their children; in religion, that they might become acquainted with its teachings and usages; in music and poetry, that their hearts might be trained and they might act properly in society; in the laws of the land, that they might understand the precepts they would have to follow and the privileges they should enjoy; in politics, that they might be able to manage the affairs of the

empire and the provinces ; in military tactics, that they might be able to train and control the army ; in history, that they might appreciate the deeds of their forefathers, stimulate their ambition, and gain the favor of the people for themselves ; and finally in astrology, that they might learn to understand the calendar and the seasons and, observing the stars, they might acquire some knowledge of medicine.

The *poets* composed songs on the heroic deeds of the Incas and gave expression to the emotions of the heart. The national songs, called *Yavaries*, were sung by the Peruvians with sweet melancholy tunes. These tunes were better adapted to their exceedingly fine sensibility than the lively comical music. The players accompanied the yavaries with a kind of flute, called quena, having six openings. On this instrument they produced painful lamentations. The Spaniards found so much pleasure in the contents and melodies of these Peruvian national songs, that they introduced many of them, in slightly changed forms, into their popular music. They also accepted some Peruvian poems. Besides the yavaries there were other songs, and besides the quena they had the fife of god Pan and the horn. — Thus we see that poetry was known in the Inca times. Many devoted their time to theatrical representations. They played dramatic, tragical, and mimical pieces, presenting the lives of herdsmen, of fishers, of country folk, and of heroes. As an example of tragedies the play : "Ollanta," is mentioned in which the cruelty of a father and the magnanimity of a king figured. Also the play : "The love of a flower," indicates the popular taste.

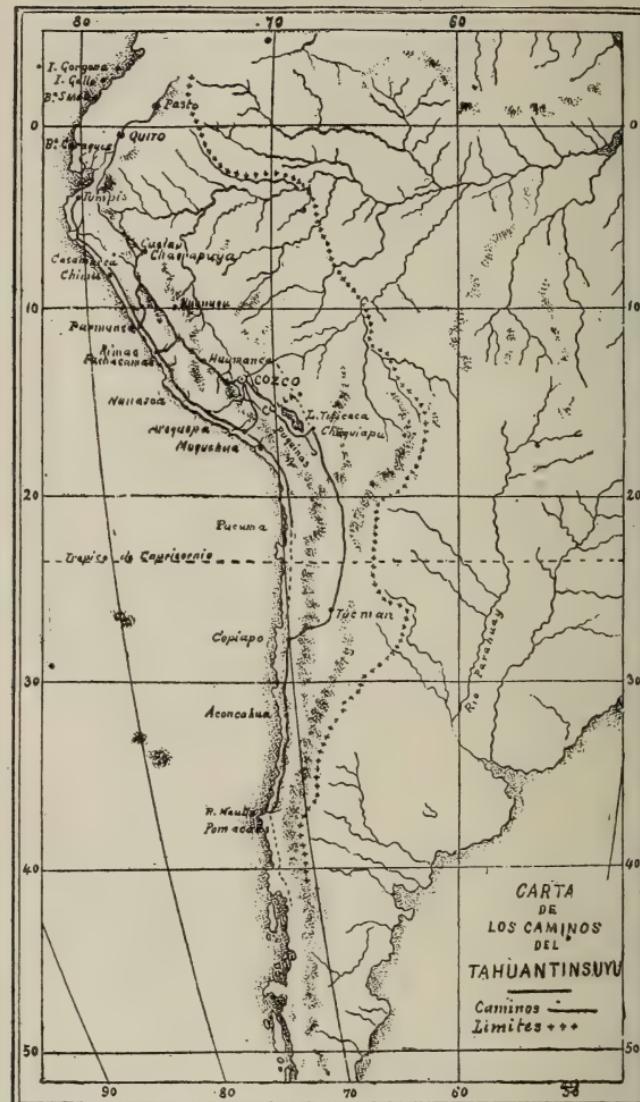
Although the Incas did not know the art of writing they, nevertheless, had an interesting method of communication. For the purpose of calculating and of preserving historical data they made use of braided strings of various thicknesses and colors in which they tied knots. This devise they called *quibbus*. It is not known what meaning they gave to the various thicknesses of the strings ; but the red color indicated war ; the

white, peace; the yellow, silver; the green, grain. The knots indicated numbers; e. g. a single knot indicated 10; two single knots, closely tied together, 20; a double knot, 100; a threefold tied knot, 1000. The number 2130 they would have expressed by two threefold, one double, and three single knots. Threads hanging down from the strings indicated subordinate occurrences. By means of these strings and knots provincial



QUIBBUS

officers were able to report to the capital the number of inhabitants and of heads of cattle of a province, the sums of taxes, and the quantities of harvested grains. In the quibbus which the judges sent to the government various colors indicated different crimes; the kind of knots, different punishments. Annually the census of the people was taken and reported to Cuzco with an exactness which, according to Rev. Cappa, the most of the farthest advanced nations have not yet reached. However, to carry history to coming generations tradition had to come to the aid of the quibbus. Let us here also mention the commission of men residing in the capital who, having received exact reports from the provincial officers on the re-



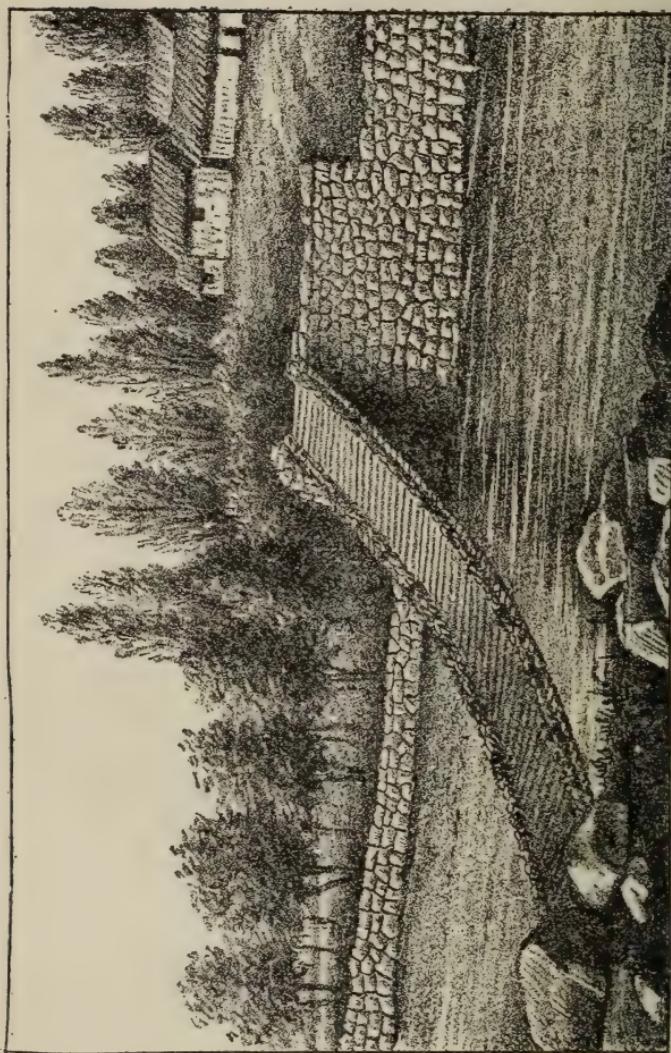
MAP OF THE INCA EMPIRE

.... indicate limits.

— — indicate highways.

sources and needs of the various provinces and also on the number of inhabitants, arranged exact statistics. It was also the duty of this commission to fix with all possible precision the kind and number of services, for which payments had to be drawn from the public treasury. The distribution of salaries was the duty of zealous officers, who filled positions throughout the empire.

Truly grand were *the highways* which the Incas built, extending them from time to time, until they traversed about the entire length of the immense tablelands of the Andes. The main thoroughfare led from Cuzco northward over the cordilleras and extended beyond Quito; and from Cuzco southward to Tucuman, whence, crossing the Andes, it continued along the Pacific coast through northern Chile. It extended in Chile to the river Maule which divides that country in a northern and southern half and which formed the southern limit of the Inca empire. This main highway had a length of 3000 miles and a width of 18 to 20 feet. To build it on the frightfully rugged plateaus of the majestic Andes, evidently innumerable obstacles had to be overcome. For here elevations had to be lowered and tunnels dug, there mountain streams, flowing in deeply cut beds and ravines, had to be bridged over, and again dams had to be laid through swamps. The report goes, that a tunnel was cut and hewn through a granite mountain sixty miles long through which the highway passed. And those people had neither iron tools, nor augers, nor dynamite. The bridges were neither of stones nor of timber, but of cables made of tough reed-like willows, of which they made suspension bridges. To build such a bridge three to six cables were parallelly suspended across a ravine and fastened to trees or rocks. Across the cables poles were fastened and these were covered with branches, gravel, and sand. All this may still be seen at the bridge spanning the river Apurimac. There was one bridge which was suspended by only one cable. The swimming bridges consisted of many



SUSPENSION BRIDGE

rafts, one fastened to another and the whole to the river banks. — Parallel with this thoroughfare and about 100 miles apart from it, another road ran alongside the seashore, which might have had a length of 1200 miles. Both thoroughfares were connected by numerous cross roads. Alongside the main thoroughfares lodging places were erected which offered travelers all conveniences without charge; for in those times the Peruvians distinguished themselves through hospitality. When the emperors, being carried on sedan chairs, traveled over these roads, servants, going ahead, removed all obstacles, even pebbles. The roads also served military purposes.

The running carriers performed their duties on these public thoroughfares. Throughout the empire men, called chasakis, were placed at definite stations for the purpose of serving as carriers. These ran over distances assigned to them with surprising speed and delivered orders and packages with great precision. The mail service was performed in this manner, and the Incas could obtain what they needed from a far distance. Thus, for instance, was it possible that the people in Cuzco, 250 miles away from the ocean, could daily eat fresh fish which had been caught on the coast of the Pacific.

Trade and commerce, it seems, remained quite undeveloped. Every neighborhood of tropical Peru, immeasurably rich in resources, will have plenteously supplied the domestic needs of the people, which, indeed, were simple and plain. All intercourse on the few navigable rivers, on the lakes, and the ocean was carried on in canoes and on rafts. But with these the Peruvians made long journeys along the Pacific coast, traveling as far as the coasts of Ecuador, Colombia, and Panama, and even to the coasts of Central America, carrying on an exchange trade. Thus it becomes explicable why the inhabitants of Panama were able to tell the gold seeking Spaniards of the mighty state in the south that was rich in gold. When these, as may be known, quarreled on the Atlantic coast of the isthmus about a piece of gold, an Indian, pointing towards the

south, said: "Do you see yonder mountains? Beyond them is living a mighty and rich people that dresses in fine clothes and is navigating a large sea. Why do you quarrel about that bagatelle?" In consequence of this indication the Spaniards resolved later to search for the great sea and the rich people of the south. We mention this incident here to establish the fact, that the Peruvians were known as traders on the isthmus of Panama before Columbus discovered America. If in this connection we also consider the circumstance, that Columbus himself was shown by the natives of the West Indian islands towards the south, where he would be able to find much gold; we may draw the more comprehensive conclusion, that the natives of different parts of South America navigated the coasts of the continent in their light craft and knew of one another at a time when Europe had as yet no knowledge of their existence. — Let us here ask a few questions. Did the Peruvians not navigate the southern coast of the continent? No report to that effect can be found. Why did they pursue a northern course? Was the northern sea route known to them from olden times? Did former acquaintances originally draw them northward? Had it become their custom to travel that way? Had their forefathers not come from the north? These questions may assist us in making inquiries about the origin of the Incas and of the Ancient Peruvians, and may gain more interest later.

Let the *wealth of Peru* occupy our attention a moment longer. The kind reader will remember what was said on page 14 about the immensity of gold of the Coricancha and its surroundings. Besides the temples of the sun-god, for whose worship gold-splendor rendered the best service, the palaces of the Incas reflected the brilliancy of gold, silver, and precious stones. In those residences were vessels of solid gold, weighing two to three hundred pounds each. During the government of emperor Huayna Capac unknown magnificence of gold was displayed. For the festivities that were arranged

at the time his oldest son was one year old, a chain of solid gold was manufactured, which had a length of 700 feet and the thickness of a fist. For the remembrance of that enormously valuable gold chain the boy prince from that day on received the surname Huascar, which signifies cable or chain. By this name he is known in history; his other name is difficult to pronounce. The gold transported from Peru to Spain gave the latter country the supremacy in Europe in the 16th century. Tehuantisuyu—Peru—was the world's richest country at that time.

After the immensity of the Inca empire's precious metals we mention its overabundance of tropical vegetation, the fertility of its soil, the diligence of its inhabitants, and its excellent climate, as proofs of its wealth. Since no want came into the country, the Peruvians were not dependent upon other countries for their subsistence. Therefore trade and commerce were not well developed.

The density of a country's population, too, is a sign of its prosperity and wealth. The population of the empire of the Incas at the time of its greatest extension and most advanced development, i. e. during the reign of emperor Huayna Capac, is estimated at 10 to 11 millions. There were 700,000 persons living in the Santa valley, and 600,000 in the Nicari valley. The empire held within its borders innumerable villages and 100 to 200 large cities. Cuzco, the capital, had 30,000 inhabitants in the inner city and 200,000 in the outer city, in which people from the provinces lived. Other cities of prominence were Cajamarca, Quito, Chimu, Huánaco, Chincha, Arekipa, Vilcas, and others.

History furnishes the proof that *the government of the Incas was successful*. The Peru of our times is in various respects decidedly behind the Peru of the Incas. History makes it evident that the Incas were better able to manage the country and the people than the Spaniards. The Incas came to Peru, sought the welfare of the people, and succeeded; the

Spaniards came impelled by the greed of gold, robbed the country of its wealth, and subdued the inhabitants. The Incas were kind, just, and humane towards their predecessors; the Spaniards were greedy, treacherous, and cruel. At the time of the Incas the Peruvians were diligent, the present Peruvians are lazy, shying work. Then the soil was tilled carefully and agriculture flourished, sustaining a numerous people; now the land is esteemed of little value. Then irrigation was carried on wherever possible and the coastlands that have no rain were made productive; now those regions lie waste and men look with surprise at the works of by-gone ages. Then the area of present Peru had a population of 7 to 8 millions — the entire empire of the Incas comprised 10 to 11 millions, as we already stated — while the Peru of our times is inhabited by but a few more than half its former number. An impartial observer is compelled to say: "Heaven blessed the wise endeavors of the heathen Incas, while the Spaniards with their principles and greed brought a curse over that country." The Incas were superior in national activities, in agricultural pursuits, in population, and seemingly even in public morals and good virtues.

4. LAWS AND COURTS OF THE INCA EMPIRE.

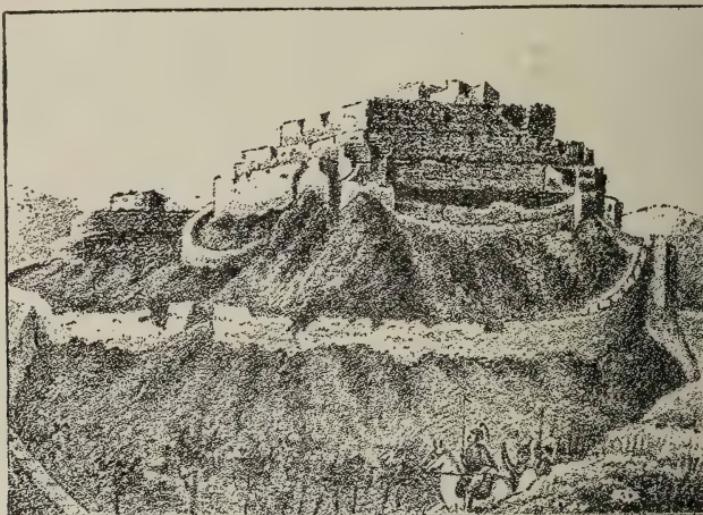
There were wise regulations which were based on the five commandments: Thou shalt not steal, thou shalt not lie, thou shalt not be lazy, thou shalt not kill, thou shalt not commit adultery. The code of laws comprised *agrarian laws*, according to which the land had to be divided impartially and according to the number of families; *sumptuary laws*, which prohibited excessive luxury and regulated the expenses of the nobility as well as those of the common people; *regulations of brotherhood*, which should have the effect that the inhabitants mutually assisted and supported one another in the emergencies of every day's life; *of benevolence*, which bade to come to the assistance of the sick, the old folk, and the cripple;

of hospitality, which prescribed the manner in which the needs of the travelers were to be supplied at the expense of the government; *regulations for the superiors* in regard to the instruction which they should give to the families relative to their domestic duties, encouraging them to be clean, to keep their clothing and tools in good repair, and in respect to the training of the children so as to respect, to obey, and to assist their parents; *tax regulations*, which prescribed that the people between the years of 18 and 50 were held responsible to work the lands of the sun and of the crown, and to make arms and clothing for the army.

Every town and district had its *judicial tribunal* for minor offenses. Crimes had to be sentenced by judges of higher standing, who commonly were the superiors of departments, or by judges of imperial blood. In case of unusual difficulty the latter went to the place where the case was tried. Every lawsuit had to be brought to conclusion in the course of five days. Appeal to a higher court was not known; lawsuit expenses there were none. The lower courts gave monthly accounts of their proceedings to the higher courts and these again to the provincial officers. Now and then visiting committees were appointed which, traveling through the provinces, inspected the court-proceedings and insisted upon exactness. Among a people carrying on little trade and not enjoying the possession of personal property there will not have been frequent occasions for lawsuits. Lawyers could not have succeeded there, since no person of the court received a pay.

The *penalties* imposed were severe. Capital punishment suffered he who cursed the sun-god or the Inca emperor, who revolted against the latter, who laid fire to bridges, and also the murderer, the thief, and the adulterer. The sentences were executed by burying the condemned alive, by casting them before ferocious animals or by stoning them; more seldom by decapitating or hanging the criminals or by precipitating them

from high rocky cliffs. Those who changed the course of the waters of the irrigation canals or who altered the limits between parcels of land or who set houses on fire were whipped on legs and arms or were imprisoned. Emperor Tupac Yupanki introduced three classes of imprisonment; to wit, a painful one, one for life, and one of temporary confinement. Inhabitants who revolted against the government were exterminated and their cities and villages were leveled. Political criminals were also banished to Acari. Finally they tried to put malefactors, having been convicted, to shame by forcing them to carry stones on their backs.



FORT PARAMONGA

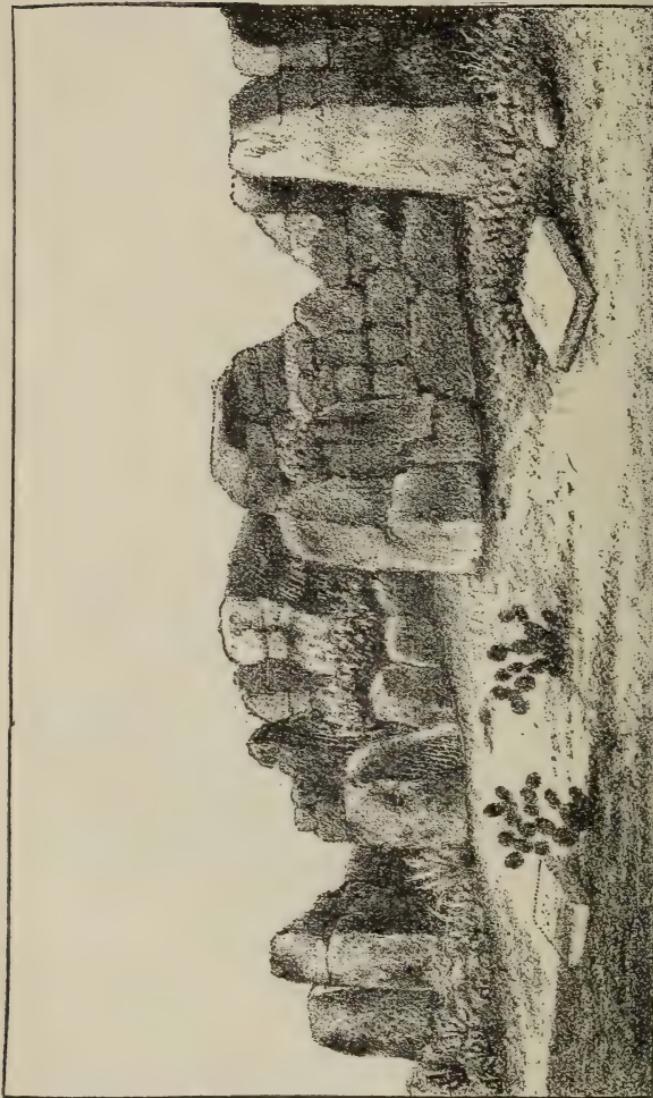
5. MILITARY DISPOSITIONS OF THE EMPIRE.

The Incas employed extensive means for *the security* and *the extension* of their country. The art to build forts was far advanced. Many forts had bulwarks, trenches, and walls with breastworks. Forts and castles existed in large numbers throughout the land. The capital which could easily be attacked on its north side, was there protected by a fort built on

a hill which stood in connection with the imperial palace by means of subterranean passages. In regard to the solidity of the walls of these forts Mr. Squier writes that they contained polished porphyry blocks, which measured 18 feet in length, 15 feet in width, and 4 feet in thickness and that others were 21 feet long, 15 feet wide, and 5 feet thick. They were fitted so perfectly that he scarcely could find the joints.

The Incas maintained *a standing army* which they supported, clothed, and armed at their own expense. In its organization as in that of the division of the people they followed the decimal system. The army, hence, was composed of bodies of ten, hundred, and thousand men. In the latter period of the empire the Incas are said to have had a standing army of 200,000 men. Each larger body of troops had its own banner; that of the Inca being the rainbow. The troops wore the same clothing which was customary in the province from which they came and decorated themselves with a kind of turban. The commanders wore helmets, made from various metals; many wore such as were made of gold and silver, decorating them with beautiful plumages.

The princes were educated together with the noble youth for the military service and became the commanders of the campaigns. Before they could lay the armor of a huaraco on, they had to pass various examinations and to go through performances which seemed to be similar to the installations of the European knights of the middle ages. Towards the close of November and in the beginning of December, in the weeks before the great summer festival, they slept during moonlight on the ground, ate little, and fasted strictly the last six days. Having recreated after such debilitating exercises, they took up sham-fights for the purpose of testing their ability in arms. Thereupon the emperor or one of his family addressed them, reminding them of the heroic deeds of their predecessors, and especially laid constant conquest as the prime duty of the sons of Inti upon their hearts. The address



RUINS OF A FORT

having concluded, they were decorated with flower-wreaths. This happened yearly at the time of the third festival of the sun. But in the year in which the crown prince entered into manhood, the festival ended with the solemn act in which the imperial family, on bended knees, recognized the prince as heir to the throne. After these festivals the prince and his comrades in arms marched out with the army on a campaign, to put into practice what they had learned theoretically.

Firearms were unknown to the Inca warriors. They fought with arrows and bows, pickaxes, spears, swords, clubs, and slings with which they hurled stones. They protected themselves by shields, breastplates, and helmets. The troops did not know tactics; in a battle they advanced in masses against an enemy. On the other hand they were trained to practice strict chivalry; for when they marched through the provinces they did not commit any nuisance, and were not troublesome to the inhabitants. On convenient places of the great thoroughfares were supply stations which were well filled with clothings, arms of all sorts, and food. In their ceaseless campaigns and wars the Incas trained an ably fighting army. However, were the soldiers not in active service, either because it was their time to rest or because a time of peace had come; they nevertheless went through military practices two or three times a month. In exceedingly brilliant manner, similar to the triumphal processions of the Romans and with the same intention, victories over enemies were celebrated. The road was covered with flowers by the females and at times it was decorated with triumphal arches. The conquered marched between the victorious soldiers, accompanied and followed by people who sang songs of victory, extolling the bravery of the Incas. Was the victory of great consequence for the empire, then a first class festival was celebrated.

The conquest of a hostile country was not undertaken, until friendly measures to bring same to terms, had been ex-

hausted. After such endeavors the Inca personally or another member of his family called the army to arms and undertook the campaign. The purpose of the war was not to destroy the enemies, but rather to incorporate them into the empire. To this end they were, as soon as they declared themselves conquered, kindly received and not made slaves, as pagan people in antiquity used to be and still are. We remember the horrible wars of Asiatic rulers, which are recorded in history, as acts of barbarity; we recall to memory the long years of Roman warfare which were characterized by destroyed cities, by countries laid waste, by nations led into captivity, by unspeakable misery and calamity. Not so the Incas of Peru. In the manner of treating the conquered enemy they exhibited a high degree of modern humanity and decidedly excelled the Spanish intruders, as we shall learn. The Inca way of proceeding reminds the author of the magnanimity with which the unionists treated the southern confederates after the last civil war of our country and of the careful manner with which the Germans annexed the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine after the German-Franco war of 1870-71. Soon after the conquest of a country the Incas took steps to investigate matters in it and to regulate them according to the laws and regulations of the empire. Thereby they took pains not to molest the new subjects. All odious differences between the victors and the conquered were carefully avoided, before the law the latter were considered to be on equal footing with the former. In case the chief of a subdued tribe or the king of a conquered country continued to live in enmity against the imperial government, he was brought to Cuzco, where he received evidences of the imperial good will and was familiarized with the customs of the court. If, on the contrary, the subdued rulers gave proofs of submission, they were left in their home countries as supervisors, because they knew best the needs and particulars of their people; they, however, were placed under the supervision of

an imperial commissioner. In order to show such kings, princes, and chiefs more evidences of imperial benevolence, their names were enrolled in the list of nobles soon after the conquest, whereby they obtained high privileges. Still more, the sons of such lords were taken to Cuzco to be trained together with the youth of the Inca nobility serving simultaneously as pledges for the submission of their fathers. And, finally, natives of conquered countries were allowed to move to the capital, where they could live entirely unconcerned and could retain their language, apparel, and customs; but they had to occupy sections of the city that were assigned them. From this last circumstance it becomes clear why the suburbs of the capital had almost seven times as many people as the real city. In case the subdued tribes and peoples were of a warlike and haughty disposition, a larger number of families were removed and brought into districts of tried fidelity. Out of these districts in turn citizens migrated to occupy the vacated places. In this way every rebellious spirit was suppressed or at least neutralized and also the national language, the Kechua, was transplanted into the newly incorporated countries. The propagation of this language the Incas fostered with great zeal; they prohibited to appoint to public office any one who was not able to use it. Also teachers were sent to those quarters to instruct the new subjects in the national language. It was the endeavor to have all the people of the empire speak the same tongue, whereby occasion was given to the formation of various dialects of the Kechua. It must have removed many tribal dialects and must have become the universal language of the empire; for the most natives of Peru and Bolivia speak the Kechua as their mother tongue up to this day. The general propagation of this language throughout the empire, composed of numerous nations and tribes, is doubtless one of the greatest achievements of the Incas. Furthermore the Incas had temples erected to the Inti-religion in the subdued districts and sent priests to instruct the

people in the national religion. While the cult of the sun was diffused everywhere and observed for public occasions, the particular religion of the natives was left undisturbed for domestic purposes. Thus certainly a religious mixture was developed which gave rise to odd formations of words and notions. The few Incas, however, succeeded in creating a well organized and unified empire out of the deeply sunken and barbarous peoples of the Ancient Peruvians, who everlastingly had waged war one with the other. This great and noble success they achieved by a prudent method of government and by the propagation of the Kechua language and the Inti-religion.

6. THE DYNASTY OF THE INCAS.

About 1250 to 1532.

Manco Capac was the supposed founder of the empire and the first of the dynasty of the Incas. He is said to have formulated the constitution and regulations which we have related. At the time of his death he took the oath from his successor to abide by them faithfully and to govern the country in harmony with his paternal dispositions. His successors were earnestly endeavored to observe and execute the fundamental laws of the country, left them as a legacy by the founder. History relates how they built upon the foundation already laid and how they erected on Peru's majestic mountain plateaus the imposing and admirable governmental structure which we beheld. Manco Capac must be counted among the principal lawgivers of the ages. For the wisdom contained in the constitution and the nobility of mind exhibited were scarcely excelled by even the Greek and Roman lawgivers of antiquity. Lycurgus, the Spartan, and Solon, the Athenian, initiated the power and greatness of their respective countries. The geographical location of Greece and the condition of affairs in those times were the causes why those men became known

in history and why their names have been repeated the world over. But the Peruvian center of civilization did not lie in the path of the world's march and its founder and promoters consequently remained in obscurity; the empire of the Incas almost disappeared, before it became known. Therefore, here lies the historic duty to bring this civilization to light and to perpetuate it in history.

The Incas knew how to surround themselves with splendor in order to make their authority sure and secure. Their principal insignia were the llautu, a ribbon about an inch wide with a red border and tassels, which was wound about the head two or three times; elongated round goldplates, serving as ornaments for the ears; two white and black feathers of the mysterious bird Curankeke; the chuspa or pocket for coca, a plant exclusively reserved for the Inca; and finally a gold or stone ax as scepter. Dressed in his beautiful robes made from extremely fine and beautified cloths of various colors, and adorned with the insignia of state the emperor made an imposing, majestic appearance. As son of Inti or descendant of the sun-god, he was respected, highly honored, fairly worshiped. His escort consisted of thousands. Nobody dared look at him without his consent. Conquered enemies came in his presence barefooted and with a small burden on their backs to indicate submission. On leaving the palace he obtained the most humble homage from the passers-by. On visiting the provinces to make investigations relative to the administration and conditions of the country or to hear the complaints of his subjects in person, the people gathered in masses to welcome him with enthusiastic acclamations.

After Manco Capac twelve successors followed whose endeavor it was to extend the at first small kingdom, in all directions. Though at the beginning several tribes joined the Inca of their own accord, afterwards the expansion had to be accomplished by military force. For many neighboring tribes had warlike dispositions, lived almost incessantly in quarrels,

and strifes one with the other, and would rather go down in battle than submit willingly to another power. The first three successors to the throne principally visited their domains, organizing them solidly and introducing popular methods.

Capac-Yupanki visited his territories in the course of two years, subdued two tribes who on account of pastures had carried on wars since a long time, and fixed the lines of their pastures. He armed the knights of royal blood and those of nobility. Towards the west he extended his kingdom to the Pacific ocean, by taking possession of the province of Camana, and towards the south to Cochabamba in Bolivia. *Yupanki* built the fort of Patirka and stretched a bridge across the river Apurimac. He organized the ceremony of the celebration of victories and regulated the labors performed in digging for gold and silver. From the precious metals idols were made. He also began the construction of canals for irrigation and the method to bury the dead with all their belongings. Of his seven sons Inca Roka (or Lloka) succeeded in the government.

Inca Roka visited his territories during the course of three years. He opened schools for the sons of the chiefs whose tribes were incorporated into the kingdom, for they had to learn the Kechua. He took great care to develop the system of the quippus. This Inca is said to have had a body-guard of 600 who accompanied him in the campaigns. He incorporated the tribe of the Chaves who submitted readily, because they feared of being annihilated by another tribe with whom they had lived in enmity for a long time.

Inca Roka's son, *Yahuar-Huacar*, followed in the government. His name signifies; "He who weeps blood," which was given this ruler, because he had a red spot in his face near an eye. The sorcerers considered that spot to be a mysterious omen,—a prognostic which took hold of the mind of this Inca more and more, till he fell into a deep melancholy. As he was not disposed to wage war personally, he intrusted the military

operations to his brother Huaccar Mayta. This one marched out with an army of 20,000 men and subdued the countries south as far as Atacama in Chile and north to Ambara. This ruler greatly disliked his first-born son Inca Ripac, wherefore he banished him from the court and commanded him to take charge of the herds of the sun. As herdsman, Inca Ripac had a very singular experience. As he pursued his occupation a strange man appeared and told him that he was the brother of Manco Capac, his name being Huiracocha Inca, and that he had been sent by the sun to warn the emperor of a danger. Many provinces of the north had revolted against him and a large army was already marching against Cuzco. The strange man was completely dressed, was bearded, and promised the prince to protect him. When the latter announced the warning at the court, he was not believed but thought to be a visionary. However, what soon happened proved the truth of the announcement. As the ruler had been of a mild disposition and but little inclined to carry on conquests, the powerful chief of the Huamangos, called Anca Huello, had made use of the emperor's weakness and had preached revolt in various tribes, telling the people that they would lose their independence, if they would not destroy the increasing power of the Incas. Having thus aroused dissatisfaction and a seditious spirit first among his own people, then among the Porcas, the Huancas, the Chancas who bore the yoke of the Incas reluctantly, Anca had united 30,000 men and was rapidly marching against Cuzco. Yahuar who in his timidity could not gather a sufficient force to oppose the invaders, left the capital and fled towards the south. Prince Ripac, deploring the departure of his father, collected as many troops as he could in the hour of imminent danger and marched out to offer battle. Fierce was the engagement and indecisive for some time; but after a fight of eight hours the sons of Inti won a brilliant victory. In memory of the currents of blood that flowed the battle-field was called Yahuar Pampa, i. e.

bloody plain. Chief Anca's defeat had the effect that his territory was incorporated into the Inca empire. As he did not want others to rule where he had been chief, he went with all who were disposed to follow him into an exile, chosen by himself. Large numbers from different tribes are said to have emigrated with him to the not distant Moyobamba. Yahuar-Huacar abdicated the throne in favor of prince Inca Ripac, who accepted the reins of government.

In remembrance of the person who had appeared to him and given the warning, he accepted the name *Huiracocha* and in honor of the same he built the temple Coccha some 50 miles distant from Cuzco. Being a courageous and enlightened ruler Inca Huiracocha contributed much to the development and expansion of his empire. In the renewed conquests he succeeded in subduing Tucuman, the northwest section of present Argentina. He paid especial attention to agriculture, having canals excavated to irrigate the fields and pastures. The canals he thus had made were in all 450 miles long and 10 to 12 feet deep. Of this emperor it is said that he came to the knowledge of the true God and intended to destroy idolatry; but being addicted to sensuality, he abandoned the intention. At this time also an oracle pronounced the sayings which the Spaniards found at their conquest; namely: "A people never seen before shall rob the Incas of their power," and "after twelve kings Peru shall be conquered." Huiracocha ordered to keep the sayings secret, fearing they might come true.

His oldest son Inca Orca, being stupid, was obliged to resign the government, having ruled but seven days: His second son *Pachacuteec* succeeded in the government. Huiracocha had given this son the name Pachacuteec, which means: "He who gives the world new life," because in his own active life he had saved and renovated the empire.

Though Pachacuteec was a great friend of conquests, he nevertheless gave the empire solidity and durability through his administration. His brother and oldest son conquered

new territories in the north. They extended the empire on the plateau of the Andes as far as Cajamarca and on the coastline to Trujillo in the old Peruvian kingdom of Great Chimu. Very desperate and bloody battles were fought in these wars. The Cajamarcans fought obstinately in the open fields, in ravines and canyons. Along the coast four kingdoms of the populous people of the Chinchas had existed since ages. They defended their possessions and rights with stubborn tenacity and destroyed many Inca armies. The resistance was so tena-



PACHACUTEC

cious that mountain after mountain, and valley after valley had to be taken. The important position Limahuana was bravely defended one month. The king of Chukimancu forced the invaders to renew their armies four times. Having conquered the kingdom of Great-Chimu, the Incas could count upon the assistance of the rulers of Chukimancu and Chismancu, because they were old enemies of the king of Chimu on account of pasture-lands. In the mountainous country the Huancas and Conchucos dropped their old quarrels and unitedly defended their countries against the Incas with boldness. But nevertheless, the able Inca armies subdued the Old Peruvians,

tribe after tribe, and kingdom after kingdom, proceeding with remarkable strategy and endurance. The valiant Emperor Pachacutec then proceeded to organize the countries and people conquered. He also promoted industries and sent to the coast for artisans who were able to work in silver, that they might instruct the people of the mountain regions in their occupation. His son Yupanki was his successor on the throne.

Inca Yupanki, who had already distinguished himself as a successful commander before he undertook to rule, visited his countries at various times. He was careful not to let the fields suffer for lack of irrigation, wherefore he had new canals dug out. At Cuzco he began to construct the fort which by means of subterranean passages, was united with the palaces. He was called "the pious," because he had many temples built throughout his domains. About the year 1450 Yupanki's army penetrated into Chile, subduing the northern part of the country, and advanced as far as the river Maule. This river divides Chile in a northern and a southern half. On its northern bank the city of Talea lies where the author of this work lived and labored and where he wrote the original manuscript of division I of this book. The empire of the Incas, consequently, extended south to this city. The historians of Chile, in their account on the invasion of the Inca army, state that they came from Tucuman and crossed the Andes to reach Chile. They marched through northern Chile victoriously, finding but little opposition, till on the southern banks of the Maule they encountered stubborn resistance. Those new enemies were the valiant tribes of the Promaucaes, of whom the Araucanians were the strongest and ablest. Later we shall give an interesting account of the Araucanians who played an important role in Chile's history.

In consequence of this resistance the Incas were forced to retreat to the northern banks of the Maule. This happened about one hundred years before the Spaniards came into the country. Into north Chile, which was incorporated into the

empire, the Incas introduced the benefits of their advanced civilization. Their government was mild and paternal, the contrary of the following Spanish administration. They improved agriculture by introducing irrigating canals, built bridges and roads, and instructed the Chilean natives in raising cattle, corn, and pot-plants. They introduced industry by showing them how to weave, how to burn earthen vessels, and how to take gold kernels out of the beds of rivers and creeks.



TUPAC YUPANKI

The successor of Inca Yupanki in the government of Cuzco was his son *Tupac Yupanki*. Conquests seemed to have become customary. It seemed to be a part of a successful reign of an Inca to have added new territory to his domains and to have incorporated new tribes and peoples into his nation. Were the Incas prompted by a desire to conquer, or were they animated by the humane feeling of bringing their own blessings to the uncivilized natives, the manner in which they proceeded in spite of the losses occasioned by war, was highly beneficial to the inhabitants of the mountain and coast districts. The lover of history learns from the Inca campaigns

that the plateaus of the Andes and the border lands of the Pacific were inhabited by numerous tribes of a populous nation, that these tribes lived in constant warfares, and that, at least, some of them had arrived at a very low condition of existence.

Tupac Yupanki turned his attention towards the north. There existed the kingdom of Quito which at this time was ruled by its fourteenth king or Shyri, called Hualcopo-Duchisela. The Inca resolved to conquer the Shyri kingdom. He organized, for this purpose an army of 40,000 and put them at the command of his brave son Apu Sahuaraura. This one marched north and was in this campaign only able to take the two provinces Chimborazo and Canar with the city of Mocha from the king of Quito, who defended his territory bravely. After this occurrence Hualcopo-Duchisela died and his successor Cacha was so successful as to regain the province of Chimborazo. — Tupac Yupanki finished the fort at Cuzco which his father had begun, and left to his son Huayna Capac, who succeeded him on the throne, the conquest of the Shyri kingdom as a legacy.

Huayna Capac subdued, at first, a number of tribes both through friendly endeavors and by military force, and then led his troops against the kingdom of Quito. The contending forces having met on the sandy plain of Tiocacha, a bloody combat ensued in which the Shyriites were repulsed. Somewhat later the battle of Atuntaki was fought, in which King Cacha lost his life and Huayna Capac achieved a decisive victory. The Inca then thought of establishing his power in Quito. But in spite of the brilliant victory of the Incas, the nobility and troops of the Shyriites proclaimed as queen the dead king's legitimate daughter, Pacha. To avoid further difficulties and revolutions, Huayna Capac resolved to wed the proclaimed young queen. Through matrimonial union he succeeded in establishing his government in the conquered kingdom of Quito. He made his residence in Quito where he built

an elegant palace and where his beautiful Pacha bore him a son, whom he called Atahualpa. In Cuzco Huayna Capac had three sons, of whom the oldest, Huascar by name, was the legitimate successor to the throne. It was at the first birthday celebration of prince Huascar that the entire Inca nobility danced on the public plaza of Cuzco which was partly encircled



HUAYNA CAPAC

by the golden chain which had been made for that occasion. In fact, under Emperor Huayna Capac's administration the Inca empire attained its greatest expansion and highest glory. It extended from the river Maule in Chile to Pasto in present Colombia, had, consequently, a length of 2750 miles from south to north, and included the present countries of Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Tucuman—an Argentine province—and the northern half of Chile. Huayna Capac, having governed twelve years in Cuzco and thirty-eight in Quito, thought to perform an act of justice by dividing the empire between his two sons Huascar and Atahualpa, the two being half-brothers. To Huascar he bequeathed all the former empire and to Atahualpa, who maternally was a descendant of the Shyriites, the

kingdom of Quito. This division led to a separation of the brothers later. Shortly before his death Huayna Capac heard of discoveries which men of an unknown race were making on the northern coast of the continent. This rumor disquieted his mind, fearing that Huiracocha's prognostic: "After twelve kings Peru shall be conquered," might be realized.

Huascar, in Cuzco, and *Atahualpa*, in Quito, managed their public affairs the first four years peacefully. Then Huascar, who, indeed, had by far the larger part of the empire, began to think the division had been made unfair and it behooved him to govern the empire undivided. He, therefore, demanded of Atahualpa to acknowledge his superiority and to pay him tribute. Huascar's insinuation on the one hand and Atahualpa's pride and progressive spirit on the other hand became the causes of an unlucky war between the brothers. The opposing armies marched to meet one another and engaged in a rough encounter at Ambato, near Mount Chimborazo; the fortune of arms was favorable to Atahualpa. The latter, quickly resolved, ordered his two best generals, Kiskis and Challkuchina to march the army via Cajamarca against Cuzco. Huascar resolved to await the enemy in the vicinity of the capital, being so advised by his council. At Kipaipau, ten miles from Cuzco, the armies clashed again, a desperate battle was fought, and Atahualpa was victorious also here, his troops being better disciplined. Huascar himself was made prisoner. His half-brother treated him with the consideration his rank required; but nevertheless ordered to take him to fort Sausa and to keep him there in secure confinement. This happened in 1531. The entire Inca empire is now in the hands of gallant Atahualpa. Intoxicated with success, born aloft by eighty of his noblemen, and accompanied by four regiments, he reaches Cajamarca on his homeward journey. While bathing and fasting at Cajamarca, a message is sent to him by some strangers with whom he arranges a friendly interview. Those strangers were the Spaniards who since a number of

years had navigated the coasts south of Panama and had finally reached the hospitable shores of Peru. Atahualpa on his part ordered his troops to receive them kindly and not to fight, while the Spaniards by mean intrigue resolved to seize the confiding Inca. And so they did at the following interview, robbing him there of his empire and later taking his life. In the meantime General Challkuchina watched over the incarcerated Huascar in Sausa whose life came to an end in the prison. According to some historians Atahualpa himself had ordered to kill the prisoner and to throw his remains into the river, whereby he attracted the hatred of many Peruvians. According to other historians the general put him to death of his own accord, for fear Huascar might be favored by the foreigners and regain his throne. With Atahualpa's tragic end the thread of the Inca history breaks. How the Spaniards killed him and came into the possession of the country, how they took up the broken thread and continued the Peruvian history the kind reader will learn from the history of Spanish conquests which follows in our second division.

ORIGIN OF THE INCAS.

Who were the Incas and whither had they come? It ought to be clear to the reader that the Incas did not belong to the Old Peruvian Aimares among whom they first settled down. For they introduced a new religion, the worship of the sun and the moon, while the Ancient Peruvians had since a thousand years, worshiped Pachacamac, as we shall learn from their history. And the Incas spoke a language which the Aimares did neither understand nor learn. It is fairly unthinkable that a married couple should rise among their own people, teaching an entirely new religion and speaking a language not understood by the rest. The religion and language of the Incas are evidences of their immigration into Peru. Nor will the reader take it as historic that the couple had come forth out of lake Titicaca, nor that they had been sent by the

sun whom they claimed to be their father. These presumptions they made use of to give themselves a supernatural appearance, to put themselves into the confidence of the Aimares.

Having established the fact that the Incas were immigrants among the Aimares, we repeat the questions: Who were they and whither had they come? Many of their customs and usages, which belong to their civilization essentially, point to their Mongolian origin. Their knot-script (*quip-pus*) and running carriers (*chaskis*) were, in antiquity, generally customary among the Mongolians. The fact that the Incas plowed the soil was an observation of a religious Chinese act of former times. Also the entire system of the Inca sun worship, including its deities and cult, remind of an old Chinese religion. They looked upon the sun as their male god and upon the moon as his sister-wife and in consequence the founder of the Inca empire claimed to have married his sister and the law of the land demanded that the heir to the throne wed his sister. By this custom the religious idea that Killa, the lunar goddess, is sister-wife of Inti, the solar-god, was ingeniously expressed. Throughout the Inca generation an Inca son could marry an Inca daughter only, the members of the Inca generation marrying within their own circle. Thereby they became an exclusive extended family. This exclusion is Chinese. The Chinese call themselves "the hundred generations" up to the present day, and, in fact, in the immensely numerous nation are today not many more than a hundred names of generations. The word "Inca" was the title of the emperor, of the family and the generation. And lastly the patriarchal family relation of the Incas was incorporated in their constitution, as is the case in China. This was based upon a mild patriarchal despotism which, as we have learned, developed in Peru into a civil communism. Thus the reader will be convinced that the immigrated Incas of Peru were descendants of the Chinese.

But how? Let us gather the facts of our research: 1. The

Inca empire was founded about 1250 A. D.; 2. Its founders migrated into Peru; 3. These or rather their forefathers had come from China or from a country bordering China. It is not admissible that the founders of the Inca empire themselves came directly from China; first because a natural route, say an ocean current, does not lead from one country to the other, and secondly because the Inca religion and constitution were to a large extent not any more in use in China in the 13th century. For these reasons the forefathers of the Incas will have left their Chinese homes in an earlier century, at the time when knot-script, running carriers etc., etc. were still customary there. From Dr. Ebrard's researches which we accept as historically correct we add the following: 1. The Toltecs of Mexico were a Chinese people who had immigrated from California, where they had lived some time, into Mexico probably in the 7th century. They had the tradition to have arrived in California after a long sea voyage. — 2. The Toltecs founded a flourishing state in Mexico with the city of Tula as capital, governing it some three or four centuries. Towards the year 1000 A. D. famine and pestilence reduced their numbers and the barbarous Chichimeks, coming also from the north, decimated them still more and drove the remnants south into Nicaragua. 3. These remnants, followed by the wild Chichimeks and driven from their Nicaraguan settlements also, renewed their wanderings towards the south and some of them reached the hospitable coasts and mountain plateaus of Peru, where they introduced themselves as children of Inti, as Incas.

<i>Numbers</i>	<i>Route</i>	<i>Time</i>
A Society,	from China,	about 500 A. D.;
Increased Numbers,	in California,	the 6th century;
A Nation,	in Mexico,	until after 1000 A. D.;
Remnants,	in Nicaragua,	in the 13th century;
Several Persons,	to Peru,	1250 A. D.

PERIOD II

JAPANESE MONGOLIAN NATIONS AND TRIBES,
AND AFRICAN TRIBES

100 to 1250 A. D.

A) ANCIENT PERUVIANS.

WE have learned that the plateaus and coastlands of Peru were inhabited when the Incas immigrated. Their armies constantly met with new kingdoms and tribes whom they conquered, but who, notwithstanding, were sufficiently powerful to defeat them at various times. These predecessors of the Incas are called Ancient Peruvians and, indeed, afterwards constituted the masses of the Inca empire. The military history of the Incas teaches us that their predecessors were no longer united in one consolidated nation, but that they were rather divided in many separate peoples and tribes, whose chiefs claimed sovereign rights, carried on wars one with the other, and had, each for himself, to fight the Incas. For this very reason they were so much more certainly defeated. However, the Ancient Peruvians formed one single brotherhood in spite of their many governments. They all had originated from the same source, as the ruins of the uniformed edifices scattered all over Peru, the works of art and the religion common to all, will show. The better organized peoples were ruled by kings, the tribes by curacas, i. e. chiefs. The farthest developed were the *Aimares* who inhabited the tablelands of Lake Titicaca. Their domain extended southward far into Bolivia and northward beyond the plains of Cuzco; the ruins of Tiahuanaco especially testify of their civilization. North of the Aimares, in Central Peru, the *Huancas* lived on both slopes of the Andes; the forts at Junni exhibit their development in architecture. The slopes along the Pacific coast were, for a distance of about 1300 miles, the home of the industrious *Chinchas* who were separated into four kingdoms; namely, Chimu, Chukimancu, Chismancu, and Chincha. The

fort and the prison north of Pativilca, the place of religious worship, Pachacamac, in the valley of Lurin, and the palace of Great Chimu at Trujillo give testimony of the ability and diligence of the Chinchas. North Peru was inhabited by the *Cajamarkinos* who are characterized as industrious and kind towards strangers. The most peculiar characteristic of this tribe seems to be their burying-places: these all show a surprising uniformity, whether located on the sides of the mountains or hewn out in the steep inclines of the deepest ravines or dug out of large masses of piled-up rocks.

Besides the more or less civilized peoples mentioned, there belonged to the Ancient Peruvians a large number of savage tribes, who, having fallen low, lived in shameless vices and cruel barbarism, avenging their wrongs in continuous fights and battles, and consuming their prisoners of war. *The Chiriguanos*, for instance, "were a people without law and good habits. They ate human flesh, not even sparing their deceased. They drank the blood of those whom they stabbed, and had sexual intercourse with daughters, mothers, and sisters." When the Incas were about to subdue the Chiriguanos, their troops, seeing the atrocities, were struck with horror in such a measure that they were obliged to abandon the expedition.

In *their dress* and especially in the ornaments for the heads the Ancient Peruvians observed a great variety of forms and colors. They wore caps of different sizes, which they adorned with horns or feathers and fastened with broad or narrow ribbons. Some had their hair cut, others allowed it to grow and to hang in braids on the sides of the head, and still others wore it tied together on top of the head.

The degree of advancement of prehistoric nations is mainly recovered from the ruins of their edifices and the remains of their works of industry. We will, therefore, make a closer acquaintance of the Ancient Peruvians, who are little known to the present generation, but who were grand in bygone ages, by making a journey of investigation through Ancient Peru.

THE ANTIQUITIES OF THE ANCIENT PERUVIANS.

Tiahuanaco is a small village, lying south of Lake Titicaca. In its vicinity we strike upon very important ruins of the Old Peruvian Aimares. We follow P. R. Cappa's citations from the detailed description of Desjardin. These ruins are said to exhibit the greatest progress of the celebrated antiquities of America. In spite of the material they have furnished for various buildings in modern times, in spite of the diggings after hidden treasures, and in spite of having been disposed to the demolishing influences of the atmosphere since centuries; an abundance of material remains for study and admiration. The Incas, being guided by wise considerations, appear to have left these ruins untouched. They consist of three separate structures which are called fort, temple, and palace of the Inca.

The fort is a grand terraced edifice in the form of a truncated pyramid and is composed of three terraces which are surrounded and held together by walls. The base is a parallelogram, whose four sides lie exactly in the directions of the cardinal points and are 660 and 500 feet long respectively. The walls which surround the terraces were built of large stones placed perpendicularly. In the exterior of these stones excavations were chiseled, into which small stones were placed in layers one upon another and in such a way that each large stone obtained the appearance of a curvet or of a kind of relief whereby the whole wall assumed a beautiful aspect. The walls are immensely thick; there are roads leading along their top. Mr. Chudy says that near the terrace which faces towards the east and rises only to half the height of the fort, he found caves which he could not enter on account of the suffocating air. The top of the edifice has been deeply excavated, undoubtedly by diggers of hidden treasures. The name of fort which has of late been given to this terraced structure,

does not designate it properly. As it was built on a plain it is very probable that it served a different purpose.

Northeast of the fort is the so-called *temple*. This is a terraced structure with a square base, whose sides have a length of 400 feet each. It is fenced in by walls, built of un-hewn stones. The ground, that nearest surrounds it, is studded with enormous stone pillars. The upper parts of the pillars are hewn and they are placed in rows and at equal distances. Though they extend far into the ground, yet they rise 18 to 20 feet above the same. The edifice itself must have been without a roof, for in its interior nothing can be seen that could have served as a support for a roof, 400 feet square. Each corner of the edifice consists of one single huge pillar-like stone which likewise has excavations for the purpose of embellishment.

In front of the side facing towards the east the temple had a kind of pillared porch composed of ten enormous cornered stone columns, with diameters varying from 3 to 7 feet. Their upper parts are hewn and they are all of about the same height, a circumstance which seems to indicate that they had supported something. Not far from the corner facing toward the northeast is the immense door, wrought out of one single stone, which is 10 feet high, 13 feet wide and whose upper part is now burst asunder.

The front of the edifice is decorated by four rows of sculptured images. Each of the three upper rows is composed of eight images, each being inclosed by a square. In the centre of these three rows is a very large image, more prominent than the others, and it occupies a space of $36\frac{1}{2}$ feet in height and 7 feet 10 inches in width. The members of this central figure are poorly proportioned. The head is half as long as the trunk, the arms which cross one another look like dropping off, and are so long that they would reach to the feet, if they hanged down. The head deserves special notice, for from it proceed straight lines, which ter-

minate in circles and in heads of tigers and condors. In each hand the image holds two scepters, shaped like coiled up snakes, the one pointing upward, the other downward. The scepter in the right hand pointing upward ends in the head of a tiger, and the one pointing downward in the head of a condor, while the scepter held by the left hand terminates reversely. The images next to the central one represent men with heads of tigers and condors, those on the extreme ends of the rows, men with wings, the rest, men with crowns on their heads. All are in positions as though they worshiped the large central image, kneeling with one knee on the ground towards it and inclining their scepters towards the corresponding scepters of the same. Finally, in the extreme quadrant of the lowest row are images of men, which wear caps decorated with feathers, and are apparently getting ready to blow a kind of horn. — On the west side, the temple has two niches just above the ground and two others above the frieze which surrounds the entire edifice like a border.

The third structure at Tiahuanaco, called *palace* of the Inca, was neither built as a residence for an Inca nor used by any as such, and lies at a distance of 1000 feet from the fort. This also is a terraced structure and though 570 feet long and 404 feet wide, it is but 20 feet high. The stones of the walls are of extraordinary dimensions. Niches with handsomely shaped arches were hewn in some of them. These arches are about the only ones that have been found in the New World of Pre-European times. In front of the palace a porch was built that leads out to an extensive esplanade, which perhaps served the ancient inhabitants for entertainments and exercises.

The statues must have been numerous. Eight have been preserved; five are in the village of Tiahuanaco, two are in the present capital of Bolivia, La Paz, and a broken one is on the road that connects both places. — The purpose of the three edifices is not clearly understood by men who have in-

vestigated the ruins. But these gigantic terraced structures with their enormous stones, embellished with a kind of relief-work, with niches, colossal cornered pillars, and ingenious, though artless works of sculpture, were built by the Pre-Incaic Aimares. They may for centuries have served the princes of that people for residences. They likewise erected the grand edifices on the islands of lake Titicaca. Then there are also other remnants of entirely different structures in this same region. These are mounds, 100 feet high and cannot—according to Dr. Ebrard—have been thrown up by the Aimares, for these erected heavy stone structures. The earthen elevations must be of Malay origin, because the Malay race threw up mounds for the purpose of burying their dead and for religious worship.

The Chinchas, who inhabited the table-lands between the Andes and the Pacific, were an industrious, skillful, and enterprising people. The entire table-lands of *Great Chimu* are full of antiquities, which demonstrate their diligence and compete with the achievements of modern times. The North American, Dr. E. R. Heath, gives us highly interesting details about the works of the Chinchas and about those of the kindred Huancas. The latter had made their abodes in the dreadfully wild mountain-lands of Middle Peru, on that plateau where the mountain-peaks rise far above the clouds and are clad, even under the tropical sun, in eternal snow. They, indeed, had made their homes where the condor lives and where the largest river on earth, the Amazon, rises. The little we cite from Dr. Heath's informations will demonstrate satisfactorily "that nothing in modern times, even not the canals and railroads many thousand miles long, can rival with the gigantic works of this mysterious people, that has passed out of existence and has left those cyclopean monuments as silent witnesses of their greatness and power."

While on the entire Peruvian table-lands near the coast, over a distance of 1235 miles, there lie ruins scattered of

which some have incredible dimensions; in the interior of the Andes, one can behold the silent remains of by-gone enterprise on all the mountains and their slopes. There is not a single ravine leading from the sea into the interior where there are no ruins of walls, of forts, of cities, or of burial places, or very extensive gardens, laid out artificially, or canals for irrigation either beneath or above the ground and of surprising length. On the inhospitable plateaus of the Andes, even on the eastern mountain slopes, in the midst of forests, unexplored and almost impenetrable, in regions deserted by man, where silence now reigns; there one meets them—speechless witnesses of the kingdoms that once rose, flourished for centuries and finally fell into decay. Truly, most interesting it is to trace human progress and power in the mountains, where the height of land and the severity of climate seem to prohibit living creatures to exist. But even there are majestic edifices built of granite, porphyry and other hard stones, which neither the demolishing forces of the atmosphere, nor the geological changes, nor the shakings of the earthquakes, nor the ruinous hands of diggers after hidden treasures, could destroy. Without mortar of any kind, those stones keep together in the walls, temples, houses, towers, forts, reservoirs, and vaults; they remain in proper position by virtue of the inclination of the walls and of the exact fitting of each stone in its location. The stones which are of six and eight sides, are so smoothly polished and the sides of the one stone fit those of another so perfectly that it is almost impossible for any one to perceive the joinings. These stones, selected regardless of shape or bulk, are of all sizes from one-half cubic foot to 1500 cubic feet. Consequently, it would be mere chance, would any one find two stones among a million whose sides are of the same dimensions.

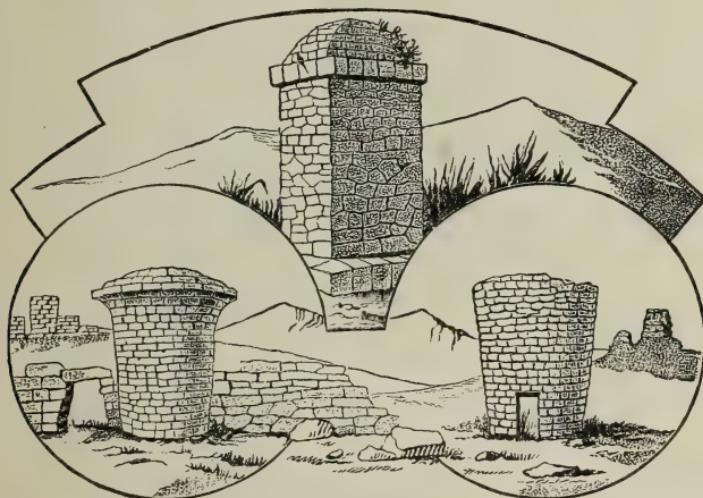
The hewn stones of 1500 cubic feet having a length of 15 feet, a width of 10 feet, and a thickness of 10 feet, or being 20 feet long, 10 feet wide, and $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet thick, were evidently

still larger before they had been hewn. Considering this, it remains a mystery how those people could lift such stones out of the quarries, convey them in a mountainous country, and fit them into the walls, since they were unacquainted with machines and iron tools. To the Chinchas it was no mystery; they did it; their walls are the proof.

Of recent date are the *explorations at Kelab*, where a structure of walls of chiseled stones has been found, that is 3660 feet long, 500 feet wide, and 150 feet high and rests upon a thoroughly solid foundation. On top of this structure rises another of the same width and height, but of a length of only 600 feet. This colossal wall structure was used for burying purposes, for it has niches of a foot and a half wide and high and of 3 feet deep, in which the skeletons sit. They rest in a sitting position, inclining forward, the arms embracing the legs, and the chin resting upon the knees. Many are sewed up in skins and covered up with cotton blankets, most of which are embroidered. — In the wall structures are three openings for doors which are worthy of notice, as one side of each opening forms part of a circle and the other a complete angle. From below a slightly inclining road is leading up on the wall on which one ascends almost imperceptibly. Half way up stands a sentry-box of stone, and on the top of the wall is a hiding-place with a small window, through which one can look over a considerable part of the province. On the steep rocky north side rises a wall of adobes which has open windows at the height of 600 feet. Neither does any one know the purpose they served, nor is it possible to get near them. Very likely the origin of these cyclopean burying-walls also lies in Pre-Incaic times. At Kelab there are also burial-places shaped like ovens and called Chulpas. They have a height of 6 feet and a circumference of 24 feet and are floored with flat stones for the dead to rest upon. In different parts of Peru Chulpas are found which are surprisingly neat and plain. As a rule they have a height of 38 feet, a diameter of 15 feet below and

of 17 feet above, their circumference increasing from below upwards.

But how imposing the walls and edifices of the Chinchas and Huancas may be, compared with their *works of industry* they are only of subordinate importance. The density of population and the condition of the soil of the rainless table-lands and of the wild mountainous districts made it necessary for



CHULPAS

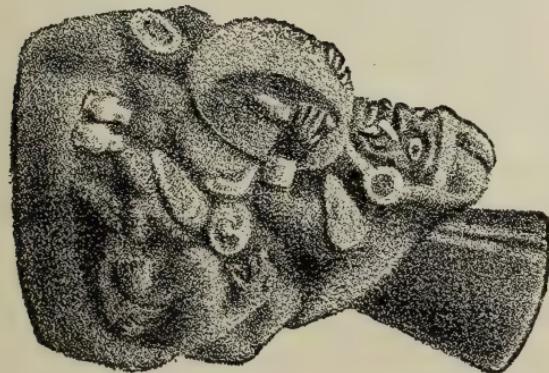
them to create artificial fields and gardens. To designate them we will retain the Spanish name and call them "*Andens*." An anden was a tract of land arranged on a mountain-slope or in the upper part of a ravine and filled up with fertile soil. For the natives erected strong walls across the upper parts of ravines and filled the basin with fertile soil; in this way many fields were created in the higher districts of the Andes. But the andens were principally arranged on mountain-slopes. The people built walls about three to four feet high along the lower side of a mountain incline, filled the space between this wall and the incline with soil, drew a second wall along the verge of the soil, again filling the space between, and so on

until the mountain-slope was covered with about 25 walls and terraces of soil, fit for cultivation. All the terraces on both mountain-sides of a ravine constituted one anden. Since the ravines or deep valleys, according to Dr. Heath, extend from the sea from 30 to 100 miles into the interior and run far up into the Andes, he estimates the length of each wall in a ravine to be at least 10 miles. From this results the total length of all the 50 walls in one ravine to be 500 miles, which length, he thinks, an exact measurement would more than double. Moreover, he estimates, that, for a distance of 1200 miles, from north to south, there are 500 andens, and arrives at the astonishing conclusion that, for the sole purpose of agriculture, there was erected in Peru a total length of walls of at least 250,000 miles. These walls would, consequently, surround the earth ten times at the equator. — Finally, they leveled proper places in the mountains and prepared them for cultivation. Such leveled tracts, in case they were in convenient locations, the Incas made use of later on in laying their renowned highway. All these andens certainly had to be irrigated by water flowing from the mountains. For this purpose they constructed canals many, many miles long.

The farthest developed kingdom of the Chinchas was that of Great Chimu. The ruins of the ancient capital of that country lie near the present Peruvian city of Trujillo in a beautiful valley 15 miles long and 6 wide through which the river Moche flows. Mr. Squier says concerning it: "The city is at present a desert of walls, inclosing large tracts of land of which each is a labyrinth of dwelling houses and of other edifices fallen into ruins." In one city ward lies a celebrated palace of the sovereigns, in another a reservoir which is 450 feet long, 195 feet wide and 60 feet deep and has a staircase leading down to the bottom. Outside the city ruins, at a distance of about a quarter of a mile, there are two tracts of land closed in by walls, being at right angles. The one tract which is 252 feet by 222 feet and is inclosed by walls 14 feet high and



CHIMU VESSELS



6 feet thick, contains a truncated pyramid whose base is 162 feet square and height 150 feet. It seems to have been the burying place of girls of 5 to 15 years of age. The walls of the other tract were 20 feet high and 8 feet thick and inclose a pyramid whose base is 240 by 210 feet. Strange it is that there is a mound within these walls 172 feet long, 152 feet wide, and 40 feet high. —

The inhabitants of Great Chimu were skillful in manufacturing articles of stone, gold, silver, copper, bones, wood, feathers, skin, cotton, wool etc. Of this raw material wood was least used, because they lacked the proper tools to work it. They, however, knew how to work very pretty forms and figures out of clay and metal. They are, indeed, said to have been able to imitate almost all the forms they found in the animal kingdom. For instance, they gave their earthen and metal vessels the forms of fishes, lizards, snakes, birds etc., and there are still vessels found so ingeniously fashioned that they imitate the sounds of the animals whose figures they bear, while the liquor they contain is being poured out. They distinguished themselves also in manufacturing cotton and woolen goods, producing the greatest abundance of all classes of goods. It is reported that their fine dress goods compete with those which the factories of Manchester and New England bring on the market in our days. Mr. Squier examined a piece of cloth and found 62 threads of warp and woof to the square inch. — Their agricultural implements the Ancient Peruvians made out of bronze.

In the maritime country of the Chinchas was *Pachacamac*, their main sanctuary, the Mecca of the Ancient Peruvians. There they had erected the main temple to their national god Pachacamac. The ruins of this city lie 20 miles south of Lima, the capital of modern Peru, on the banks of the river Lurin, on a high elevation overlooking the sea. When the Spaniards under the leadership of Francisco Pizarro conquered Incaic Peru in 1532, the city of Pachacamac had been in the posses-

sion of the Incas already 150 years. At that time Estete, a contemporary of Pizarro wrote: "The city is something grand. It is surrounded by a wall which now is destroyed, has large gates for entrance and streets and many spacious houses with terraces, like those in Spain. It must be very old, for a large number of edifices are fallen into ruins." When the Incas introduced their religion the worship of Pachacamac had to recede, for in virtue of the policy of the Incas the sun-god obtained the preference at all public events, as we have learned. The temple Pachacamac was changed into a temple of the sun. Aside of it the Incas erected a house for the virgins of the sun which they inclosed with five walls. The idol Pachacamac was placed in a side room of the temple, where it was in a neglected condition at the time of the Spanish invasion. For Estete reports the condition in which he found the idol and the room it occupied as follows: "The temple is a good building, well finished and painted. The idol was kept in a well locked, very dark and filthy room. It was made of wood and was very unclean. This the people believe to be God who created and preserves all things. At its feet were some golden ornaments, that had been offered him. The idol is revered so highly that no person but his priests and servants whom he is said to have elected, is permitted to enter into his presence or to touch the walls of the temple. He is worshiped as God throughout the country and many valuable gifts are offered to him. From a distance of 900 miles and still farther, the pilgrims come to bring their offerings consisting of gold, silver, and cloth. These they hand over to the keeper, who goes in to the idol in order to question him, and who returns with the received answer. All the people who come annually far distances to offer their tribute to this temple, have houses in which they deposit their offerings." From this it appears that Pachacamac was also used as an oracle to whom the people resorted to interrogate in regard to difficult emergencies of life and possible future events. Father Arriaga

who labored as Catholic missionary in Peru at the time of the Spanish conquest, describes the zealous character of the Peruvian pagan worship as follows: "The superior and subordinate priests, clad in their garments and, decorated with feathers, came with copper and silver trumpets and large sea-shells, on which they blew to summon the people, and brought offerings for the gods in pots, jugs, and vases. The people, especially the women, came with timbrels and a large number of cunas—a kind of cradle—on whose sides figures, mainly heads of animals which were objects of reverence, had been carved out. Various families brought the dry bodies of their deceased ancestors and took such also out of the temples, as though the living and the dead came together for judgment." Whether this gathering took place in harmony with the usages of the Inti religion or that of the Ancient Peruvians, father Arriaga does not report. He heard the confession of 6,794 persons, made 679 priests of the pagan worship do penance, and—what enables one to cast a glance upon Peru's pagan condition in the 16th century—he destroyed 5,676 idols and other objects of idolatrous worship; he also punished 73 sorceresses and witches.

The Spaniards, out of contemptible thirst for gold, respected neither the sanctity of temples nor the rights of private houses,—while on the contrary the Incas, indeed, nowhere laid their hands upon home treasures and objects dear and sacred to the people they conquered.—The Catholic Spaniards carried 1687 lbs. of gold and 16,000 lbs. of silver away from the temple of Pachacamac. The real treasure of the temple, which was estimated at 25,000 lbs. of gold and silver, had been hidden by the inhabitants somewhere between Lurin and Lima. Pizzaro had promised one of his captains, as recompense for his services, the silver nails and tacks with which the silver plates bearing the name of the god, had been fastened to the walls of the temple. The captain claimed his part of the booty and received not less than 32,000 oz. of sil-

ver. Some halls of the temple with niches and figures have been preserved up to the present time.

The *tombs* still existing give us highly interesting and instructive information concerning the industry and domestic life of the Chinchas. Not very long ago Mr. Squier opened a *family tomb* in the city of Pachacamac of which he gives the following detailed account: "This tomb, walled with adobes—sun-dried bricks—was four feet square and three feet deep, and contained five bodies: one of a man of middle age; another of a full-grown woman; a third of a girl of about fourteen years; a fourth of a boy about seven, and the fifth an infant. The little child was placed between the father and the mother; the boy was by the side of the man, and the girl by the side of the woman. All were enveloped in a braided network, or sack of rushes, or coarse grass, bound closely around the bodies by cords of the same material.

"Under the outer wrapper of braided reed around the man, was another of stout, plain cotton cloth, fastened with a variegated cord of llama wool. Next came the envelope of cotton cloth of fine texture, which, when removed, disclosed the body, shrunken and dried hard, of the color of mahogany, but well preserved. The hair was long and slightly reddish, perhaps from the effect of the nitre in the soil. Passing around the neck, and carefully folded on the knees, on which the head rested, was a net of the twisted fiber of the ajave, a plant not found on the coast. The threads were as fine as the finest used by our fishermen, and the meshes were neatly knotted, precisely after the fashion of today. Wrapped up in a cloth, beneath his feet were some fishing-lines of various sizes, and some copper hooks, barbed like ours, and some copper sinkers.

"Under each armpit was a roll of white alpaca wool, and behind the calf of each leg were a few thick short ears of variegated maize, or Indian corn. A small thin piece of copper had been placed in the mouth, corresponding perhaps to the óblos which the ancient Greeks put into the mouths of their

dead as a fee for Charon; and suspended by a thread around the neck was a pair of bronze tweezers, probably for plucking out the beard." — The man evidently had supported himself and family by fishing and by tilling the soil, and we have before us a family of the Old Peruvian working-class.

"The wife, beneath the same coarse outer-wrapping of braided reeds, was enveloped in a blanket of alpaca wool, finely spun and woven in a style known as 'three-ply,' in two colors, a soft chestnut-brown and white. Below this was a sheet of fine cotton cloth, with sixty-two threads of warp and woof to the inch.

"It had a diamond-shaped pattern, formed by very elaborate lines of ornament, inside of which, or in the spaces themselves, were representations of monkeys, which seemed to be following each other as up and down stairs. Beneath this was a rather coarsely woven, yet soft and flexible cotton cloth, twenty yards or more in length, wrapped in many folds around the body of the woman, which was in a similar condition, as regards preservation, to that of her husband.

"Her long hair was less changed by the salts of the soil than that of her husband, and was black, and in most places lustrous. In one hand she held a comb, made by setting, what I took to be, the bony parts—the rays of fishes' fins—in a slip of the hard woody part of the dwarf palm-tree, into which they were not only tightly cemented, but firmly bound.

"In her other hand were the remains of a fan with a cane handle, from the upper points of which radiated the faded feathers of parrots and humming-birds. Around her neck was a triple necklace of shells, dim in color and exfoliating layer after layer, when exposed to light and air. Resting between her body and bent-up knees were several small domestic implements, among them an ancient spindle for spinning cotton, half covered with spun thread, which connected with a mass of the raw cotton. This simple spinning apparatus consisted of a section of the stalk of the quinoa, half as thick as the little

fingers, and eight inches long, its lower end fitting through a whirl-bob of stone to give it momentum when set in motion by a twirl of the forefinger and thumb, grasping a point of hard wood stuck in the upper end of the spindle. The contrivance is precisely the same as that in universal use by the Indian women of the present day. One of the most interesting articles found with the woman was a kind of wallet, composed of two pieces of thick cotton cloth of different colors, ten inches long by five wide, the lower end of each terminating in a fringe, and the upper end of each corner in a long braid, the braids of both being again braided together. These cloths placed together were carefully folded up and tied by braids. The pocket contained some 'Lima beans'; a few pods of cotton gathered before maturity, the husks being still on; some fragments of an ornament of thin silver; and two little thin disks of the same material, three-tenths of an inch in diameter, and pierced with a small hole near its edge, too minute for ornament apparently, and possibly used as a coin; also tiny beads of chalcedony, scarcely an eighth of an inch in diameter.

"The body of the girl was in a peculiar position, having been seated on a kind of workbox of braided reeds, with a cover hinged on one side and shutting down it was fastened on the other. It was about eighteen inches long, fourteen wide, and eight deep, and contained a greater variety of articles than I ever found together in any grave of the aborigines. There were grouped together things childish, and things showing approach to maturity. There were rude specimens of knitting, with places showing where stitches had been dropped; mites of spindles and implements for weaving; and braids of thread of irregular thickness, kept as if for sake of contrast with other larger ones and nicely wound with a finer and more even thread. There were skeins and spools of thread, the spools being composed of two splints placed across each other at right angles, and the thread wound in and out between them. There were strips of cloth, some wide, some narrow, and some of

two and even three colors. There were pouches plain and variegated, of different sizes, and all woven or knit without a seam. There were needles of bone and of bronze; a comb and a little bronze knife, and some other articles; a fan smaller than that of the mother, was also stored away in the box. There were several sections of the hollow bones of some bird, carefully stopped by wads of cotton, and containing pigments of various colors. With these I found a curious contrivance, made of the finest cotton, evidently used as a 'dob' for applying the colors to the face.

"By the side of these novel cosmetic boxes was a contrivance for rubbing or grinding the pigments to the requisite fineness for use. It was a small oblong stone, with a cup-shaped hollow on the upper side, in which fits a little round stone ball, answering the purpose of a pestle. There was also a substitute for a mirror, composed of a piece of iron pyrites, resembling the half of an egg, with the plain side highly polished. Among all these many curious things was a little crushed ornament of gold, evidently intended to represent a butterfly, but so thin and delicate that it came to pieces and lost its form when we attempted to handle it.

"There was also a netting instrument of hard wood, not unlike those now in use in making nets.

"The envelopes of the girl were similar to those that enshrouded her mother. Her hair was braided and plaited around the forehead, encircling which, also, was a cincture of white cloth, ornamented with little silver spangles; a thin narrow bracelet of the same metal still hung on the shrunken arm, and between her feet was the dried body of a parrot, doubtless her pet in life, brought perhaps from the distant Amazonian valleys.

"There was nothing of special interest surrounding the body of the boy; but bound tightly around his forehead was his sling, finely braided with cotton threads.

"The body of the infant, a girl, had been imbedded in the

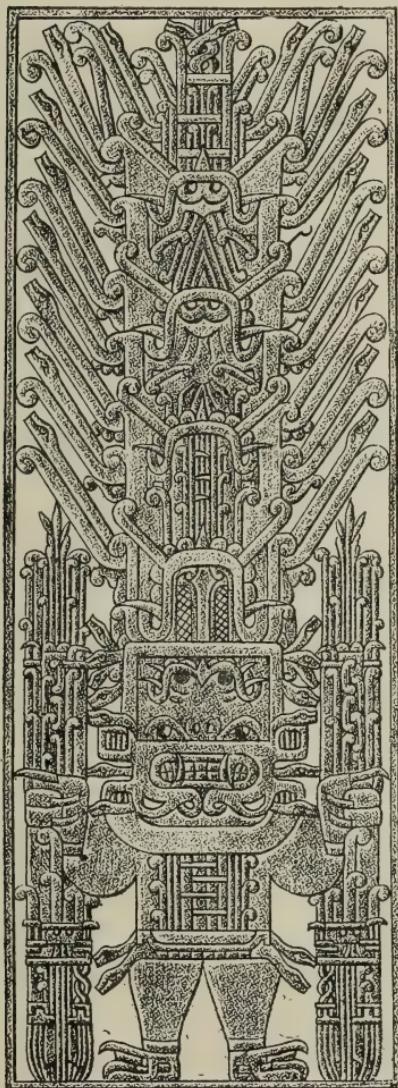
fleece of the alpaca, then wrapped in fine cotton cloth, and placed in a strongly braided sack of rushes, with handles or loops at each end for carrying it. The only article found with this body was a seashell containing pebbles, the orifice closed with a hard pitch-like substance.

"Besides the bodies there were a number of utensils and other articles in the vault, among them half a dozen earthen jars, pans and pots of various sizes and ordinary form. One or two were still incrusted with the soot of the fires over which they had been used. Every one contained something, one being filled with peanuts, another with maize, etc.; and there were some other articles, representing the religious notions of the occupants of the tomb."

Not taking in consideration a few of the objects, for instance, the coin, the edibles, and the last mentioned vessels, no one, undoubtedly, will say, that the manifold objects in the family tomb described were set aside with the dead out of any religious motive, or perhaps for the purpose of making use of them in the other world. No one will think so even in spite of the fact that the North American Indians bury the hunting-apparatus of the deceased with his remains, believing that he will make use of them on the imaginary hunting-grounds of another world. The many singular objects will have been placed in that family-tomb in consequence of the congenial, generally observed custom of the Ancient Peruvians of entombing their deceased friends with the principal implements they had used in life to earn their daily bread, and with the favorite objects that had made life pleasant to them. It probably seemed to them that death should not sever all relations with life and that the tools of labor and the objects of delight would make rest in the tomb pleasanter. Thus they likely could die more easily, thus probably mourning lost its keen pang. In fact it can not be ascertained how long the deceased family had rested in their quiet tomb, when Mr. Squier disturbed their peace, whether already since the Pre-Incaic times,

or since the Incas had conquered the countries of the Chinchas, or only since the Spanish invasion. Nevertheless, one may accept with certainty that the mode of entombing had been in accordance with the Ancient Peruvian usage, that likewise all the objects found were of Ancient Peruvian manufacture. For not only was the tomb in Pachacamac, the principal sanctuary of the Ancient Peruvians, but it is also a well known fact that the Incas wisely observed the rule to proceed with forbearance with the native rights and home customs. The family tomb in Pachacamac, then, was a type of the Ancient Peruvian way of entombing, and enables us to form an opinion about their industry, their domestic labor, the occupations of their girls, the plays of their children, and, last but not least, about their family-life. The surviving friends had entombed the deceased family with great tenderness of feeling and had given the family relation a pleasing expression in the quiet vault.

Very important ruins have also been found in North Peru, in the present province of Huari. We will give a brief description of only one of them: *The castle of Chavin Huantar*, discovered by Mr. Raimondi. It can actually not be determined whether the castle was a fort only, or whether it served as prison and sanctuary also. Two terraced structures, which are near a river, are fortifications, built according to an advanced plan. An opening of less than two feet square leads into a labyrinth of subterranean passages, which cross one another at right angles and are about 6 feet high and 3 feet wide. Each of the very thick walls of this subterranean labyrinth is traversed lengthwise by a kind of tunnels, a foot and a half square, some of which lead into rooms that are about 15 feet long and half as wide. Beneath this labyrinth are other walls and passages and rooms, which — according to the opinion of the people — continue far below the river. At about the middle of the building, at the crossing of two long passages, a granite column rises, which has the shape of a three-cornered prism, with very capricious figures, such as big mouths con-



GRANITE CUTLERY

taining large canine teeth, and large eyes. Out of this castle was taken a right-angled granite block which is 6 feet one inch long, 2 feet 5 inches wide, and 6 inches thick. At present it is at the museum of Madrid. Although its figures are wearing off, it still shows artistic, symmetric, and delicate work. It has the fantastic figure of a man with three fingers who holds coiled up snakes in his hands, forming scepters, and who wears on his head an ornament, entangled with other snakes and disfigured with mouths which contain large canine teeth.

All the Ancient Peruvian tribes were acquainted with a *hieroglyphic writing* which they carved in stones and which consisted in images of human beings, in straight lines, circles, and parallelograms. Although hieroglyphics were neglected at the time of the Incas, and although these rulers are said to have considered them as counteracting their purposes; there are still many remnants found in the ruins of old Peruvian temples. Here we conclude our journey through Ancient Peru.

ORIGIN OF THE ANCIENT PERUVIANS.

On this journey of investigation we learned to know more facts, and these facts induce us again to raise questions; for the knowledge gained makes us more inquisitive. In view of the grandeur and the abundance of relics of Old Peruvian industry and architecture, we involuntarily exclaim with a Spanish antiquarian: "Who was that unwearied people that was able to haul immense masses of hard porphyry many miles from the quarries, through valleys thousands of feet deep, over mountains and plains without leaving any trace; and that was able to accomplish such feats without knowing the use of iron tools and without having other domestic animals than the weak llama? Who was the people that after having piled up these rocks on the building-ground, hewed, polished and joined them together with the exactness of one skilled in mosaic work? Who was the people that created extensive artificial fields in

the mountain-wilds, that erected large cities, and produced skillful works of clay, of stone, of copper, of silver, and of gold, and embroidery such as in our days scarcely can be found? Who was that people, apparently possessing the wealth of a Dives, the strength and energy of a Hercules, the diligence of bees, and the perseverance of ants?" Who were they and whence had they come? Who of our diligent men of research will solve these problems and give us satisfactory reply?

The fact will not have escaped the observation of the reader, that all the edifices which we have rudely described, whether in South, Central, or North Peru, had been erected in accordance with the same general way of building; they were all terraced structures. It also will be remembered that the work of sculpture in the castle at Chavin Huantar in North Peru had some traits in common with the figures of the temple near Tiahuanaco, south of lake Titicaca. These two places are about 900 miles apart and are, moreover, separated by dreadfully wild mountain ranges, so that very probably no intercourse existed between the inhabitants of those places. Other similarities in art and industry can easily be seen. Pondering on this, one naturally draws the conclusion that those kingdoms and tribes constituted *one single people, a people of one blood and one origin.* And are not the industry and activity, the power and endurance of the Ancient Peruvians characteristics of the Japanese?

To this we add the religious proof. The reader has already learned that from all parts of Peru the pilgrims migrated to the national sanctuary Pachacamac, to bring offerings unto their god. This important custom is also a strong evidence for the belief that the Ancient Peruvian peoples and tribes belonged together. At the beginning of their history, *Pachacamac* had been worshiped as the invisible god and the creator of heaven and earth. *Pachacamac!* — how could the people give such a name to their god? As naturally as we call God

from his works "creator of the world." For the word "Pacha" means earth, perhaps also world, and "in the word 'camac' we have the Japanese 'kami' which means god. Kami is, indeed, an ancient appellative for god, and was common to the Mongolian and Tartaric sections of the human family. The name Pachacamac, then, designates God as 'Earth-god,' World-creator. Garcilasso, Velasco, and Ulloa harmonize in their reports, concerning the tradition of the Peruvians, that Pachacamac had been *an invisible god, who had not been represented by figures* and to whom no offerings had been brought." At the beginning of their Peruvian history, the people still fostered the concept of monotheism, irrespective of their having many inferior gods. For monotheism existed in Peru at that time, in spite of the fact that there were subordinate gods for all possible purposes, whom they represented figuratively and whom they worshiped. The tradition alluded to continues thus: "When men became disobedient to their creator and gave themselves up to passions, Pachacamac regretted that he had created them, and found himself obliged to punish them, wherefore he sent them the deluge. Out of the flood Wiracocha and his three sons saved themselves. Their descendants feared the wrath of god, and also recognized his benefits, wherefore they erected the great temple in the valley of Lurin for his service." But in the course of centuries the people lost that elevated concept of an invisible creator, lowered God Pachacamac to the inferior spheres of the other gods, represented him also in figures, and worshiped him as an idol,—a process of decay which went on slowly and consequently continued during a long period of time.

The knowledge of one god had grown dim and dark, long before the Incas came to Peru. But when these introduced the religion of the sun without abolishing or even changing the worship of Pachacamac, when sun and moon were worshiped besides Pachacamac and the many inferior gods, when the people attended the sumptuous Inti-festivities and also continued

journeying to the old venerable national sanctuary in the valley of Lurin; then the obscure religious ideas of the Old Peruvians became thoroughly confused. In their slow, but sure religious decay the Ancient Peruvians also fell morally. Conscience grew weak, night overtook them, and they walked in darkness. Passions and vices, deeds of infamy, yea barbarism prevailed. Voluptuousness became the pre-eminent public passion. The Chiriguanos were not the only ones with whom sodomy and cannibalism were at home. Numerous human sacrifices were offered to the gods. The wife took her own life at the death of her husband in order to serve him in the other world. At the death of a person of high rank many relatives and servants had to sacrifice their own lives. Many tribes waged constant wars of revenge against one another. Lascivious living debilitated the people, their passions ruined them. Their colossal structures testify to their energy and strength, they are witnesses of their national prosperity. They must have erected them previous to their religious decay, previous to their moral and social corruption. The Ancient Peruvians very probably had passed through an epoch of prosperity never reached by the Incas, long before these came into the country. But, notwithstanding, the latter became the lawgivers of the first, became their instructors in morals, became their reformers. Having established their authority, the Incas dictated severe laws against the carnal sins and human sacrifices of their new subjects. They were, indeed, in such a high moral standing that they felt sad and indignant at the social corruption of the Ancient Peruvians and that they were, at least partly, able to control the destructive powers of depravation and to redeem the people from total ruin.

"Kami" in the name Pachacamac is a Japanese appellative for god, and in the voluptuousness and sodomy of the Ancient Peruvians Dr. Ebrard sees a characteristic of the social life of the Japanese, for "especially is it the Japanese people with whom every sort of carnal indulgence flourishes." To this we

add some extracts of what Dr. E. says about the other divinities of Ancient Peru: "There was a god of thunder called katequil, chaquilla 'thunder,' or katuilla 'lightning.' His sister was the goddess of rain. Her name is lost, but a song of mythology says that her wild brother broke her urn with a stroke of lightning so that the rain poured out. We know the name of the goddess since our study of the Japanese mythology. It is the Japanese Tensiodaisin in company with her wild brother The Ancient Peruvians believed in thunder-bolts that had fallen from heaven and were thought to bring about charms of love (similarly the aerolites were revered in Japan). Twins passed for sons of lightning and he to whom such were born, brought an offering of thanksgiving to the god of thunder. Witchcraft which the Incas later on prohibited, but which, nevertheless, was practiced by the people, was essential to the Ancient Peruvian religion. Malay and Japanic-Mongolian worship of spirits was intermingled in it. There was a kind of superior priest of the oracle, who spoke with the gods. He was titled wakapillac, which word is partly of Malay and partly of Old Peruvian construction, for waka is the Malay word for 'god' and villa is an Old Peruvian word meaning 'to speak,' so that wakapillac means 'speaker to god.' Of the same origin is the name for the conjuror of the dead, called malquipillac, composed of the Malay word malqui, i. e. 'dead' and villa, i. e. 'to speak.' The last one was also designated by the word ajatacac which must be Japanese." That we find Malay words intermixed with Japanese, is very natural, because the Aborigines of Peru were Malays, as we shall learn later on.

ANCIENT PRAYER TO THE GODDESS OF RAIN.

"Beautiful princess, thy brother thy urn now smashes ;
From the stroke it thunders, lightens, and flashes.
But, thou princess, pouring out thy water, rainest
And at times hail and snow thou sendest.

Pacharurek — Pachacamac — Wiracocha
Hath ordained thee to that office."

The Ancient Peruvians were, therefore, descendants of Japanese immigrants. These had, like the Chinese Incas, who arrived later, not navigated from Japan directly to Peru; they entered the continent from the north, as the traces of their wanderings show. For the Chibchas on the banks of the river Magdalene in the northwest of South America also were of Japanese origin, as we shall learn later in the chapter treating of that people. Dr. Ebrard recovers traces of Japanese civilization also in Central and even in North America, and says concerning those wanderings, that the Japanese came to America "either by coast navigation, or, what is much more probable, by following the Koorile Islands as far as Kamchatka and then the Aleutian Islands to Alaska, whence they continued journeying by land." This may appear incredible to some of our readers, but is not at all improbable to him who is familiar with the very lengthy maritime journeyings from island to island and the wanderings of the prehistoric races. We shall have to refer to some of this navigation when we shall treat on the migrations of the Malay race. Since the Ancient Peruvians were far advanced in some branches of enterprise and art, Dr. Ebrard supposes that their forefathers cannot have left their native country before the year 209 B. C. For in that year, a large number of Chinese came from China to Japan under the leadership of Zikofukus, and brought skillfulness and arts with them; while Japan seemed to have been void of art and industry before that time. "The arrival of Japanese in America probably took place 100 B. C." They established themselves in Central America, whence their descendants were driven farther south by other races coming from the north. Peru they may have reached at the beginning of the Christian era, about the year 100 A. D.

Even at that early time America was inhabited; the Jap-

anese immigrants found a population in Peru at their arrival. The original inhabitants of Peru lived miserable lives. They were naked and lived on trees, wherefore the new immigrants gave them the nickname monkey. We shall treat on the aborigines particularly in a subsequent period. The newcomers began to develop a wonderful activity and gave to Peru a new aspect in the course of more than a thousand years. In the beginning of their Peruvian history they must have constituted one nation under one single government; for tradition reports that 80 kings succeeded one another in the government. During the political union Ancient Peru reached that greatness and high development of which the antiquities we learned to know are the remnants. Then the people worshiped Pachacamac as the God high above all other gods, as the invisible creator of the world. They prospered, became wealthy; but undoubtedly, their great prosperity became their snare. They fell into religious decay characterized by horrifying human sacrifices, and into moral corruption. They separated into the different kingdoms and tribes which the Incas found. Degradation and corruption is the process of unbiblical mankind everywhere.

From Ancient Peru kindred tribes or hordes wandered into all directions to satisfy the desire of wandering. Those who settled in the north, founded the kingdom of the Shyris with Quito as capital. Those who wandered towards the rising of the sun, following the courses of rivers, grew savage in Brazil's tropical forests. Those who directed their faces towards the southeast, populated the very extensive table-lands of Bolivia, Tucuman, and Paraguay. And finally, roving companies are said to have crossed the southern Andes, to have roamed southward through Chile and to have mixed with the Araucanians in the south of the country. We will next trace these different wanderings.

B) DESCENDANTS OF THE ANCIENT PERUVIANS.**1. THE SHYRI-KINGDOM.**

Already in the history of the Incas, did we meet with the kingdom of the Shyris whose capital was Quito. This kingdom occupied the territory of the present Republic of Ecuador and was likewise established on the table-lands of the Andes, having the Old Peruvians in the south and the Chibchas in the north; it was related to both. They belonged to the Japanic-Mongolian immigrants, as we learn from their organization and civilization. For, there also existed a firmly organized nobility with a king at the head. The people dedicated themselves to agriculture and lived together in towns and villages.

At the time of the Inca conquests the kingdom of the Shyriites stood on an equal footing of development with the Ancient Peruvian kingdoms. Then the fourteenth Shyri, i. e. king, the fourteenth probably of the then ruling dynasty, had the reins of government in his hands in Quito. One may estimate his strength from the fact that Inca Tupac Yupanki led an army of 40,000 warriors against him and that these were able to conquer but two provinces. The following Inca, Huayna Capac, had to wage a war of five years against the last Shyri, called *Cacha*, before he was able to unite that ancient kingdom with his empire. Also the circumstance, that the victorious Inca established his residence at Quito for 38 years, while all his predecessors, indeed, had resided at Cuzco since more than two hundred years, testifies to the importance and the progress of the Shyri-kingdom.

2. AIMARES IN BRAZIL.

Turning now away from the table-lands of the Andes and directing our attention to the interior of the continent, we meet the savage tribes of the *Botoquedes* north of the mighty Amazon river. They are a people that grew wild. They neither

till the soil nor make clothing. They walk about naked, kill men to drink their blood, boil their flesh and eat it. Mr. Chudi judges from the yellowish complexion and oblique eyes of these cannibals that they are of Mongolian origin and says: "I have seen Chinese whom at the first sight, I would have taken for Botokudes, and again I observed a few Botokudes who wore the perfect type of the Chinese." To this we must



BOTOKUDE

add that "Botokudes" is a Portuguese word which signifies peg-people and which was given to them by the Portuguese, because they wear pegs or plugs in ears and lips. They call themselves Aimares or also Ensheregmungs. Do complexion and eyes, does the whole physical constitution, indicate the Mongolian origin, their name tells right out that they descended from the Japanese Aimares of Ancient Peru. — Kindred to the Botokudes are the *Guarani-Indians* of Brazil, because these, like those, are of a light yellowish complexion and have oblique eyes.

But how could tribes, kindred to the far advanced Ancient Peruvians whose works we have admired, lose themselves in the forests of tropical Brazil and there grow savage totally? The reader will recollect the lawless tribes, among them the Chiriguanos, who lived in Old Peru beside the organ-

ized kingdoms. They were wild cannibals without laws and virtues, and certainly distinguished themselves from the semi-cultured Japanese. Dr. Ebrard's opinion, "that degraded Mongolian-Tartaric tribes immigrated from Manchooria, the islands of Yezo, Tarakai, and the Kuriles with the more advanced Japanese into America" must be correct. "And pre-eminently just such Ugrotartaric tribes will have had the inclination to rovings and wanderings." Then the reader who consults the map of the Inca Empire on page 32, will find that the mighty Amazon river rises in the Peruvian Andes and that the sources of some of its tributaries lie north of Lake Titicaca, namely in the territory of the ancient Aimares. In these regions those uncultured roving hordes must have started and, following the courses of the mountain-streams and the left bank of the mighty Amazon, must have reached Brazil's tropical forest north of that majestic stream. In these journeys the tropical climate supplied them with an abundance of fruit and game. Brazil's tropical forests yield the products of the torrid zone very abundantly; clothing and firm dwellings are not necessities. There those rude wanderers did not accustom themselves to agriculture and cattle raising. Hunting game, protecting themselves against wild animals, and living under the powerful influences of a tropical forest, they lost sight of the occupations of their countrymen and stripped off the last traces of an orderly life they might have brought from Peru. "The Botokudes and Guaranis offer us another striking incident of bewildering, i. e. of that sinking which, instead of the illusive theories of evolution, everywhere presents itself to our observation in actual life." (Ebrard.)

Finally, vice still offers another proof for the Mongolian origin of those savage tribes. In Ancient Peru we found the vice of voluptuous living generally prevailing. And of the mentioned tribes of Brazil it is said that not only does this vice exist there shamefully, but also the custom that certain men, principally sorcerors, walk about in women's clothing,

practicing pederasty. This contemptible practice is customary among some Mongolian peoples, especially among the Japanese. One must not think that voluptuous living is common to all natives and that one can, therefore, not make use of it as a characteristic to prove the similarity of nations and tribes. With the original Malay inhabitants of South America, e. g. with the Araucanians of Chile and others, we shall not find such a demoralization, but on the contrary a high degree of sexual purity. Public vices and virtues are national traits that prove the kinship of nations and tribes.

3. MANDCHUSIKUANS, JURUKARIANS, AND OTHERS.

Did wandering tribes of the Ancient Peruvians populate Central Brazil, other tribes settled down on the table-lands of Bolivia and Paraguay and still others forced their way even as far as the banks of the river Parana. In the following we will show how Dr. Ebrard deduces the Japanic-Mongolian origin of those tribes from the names of their divinities, from their traditions and customs.

In Paraguay live the *Mandchusikuans*, whose very name reminds of the Manchoorians, who are subjects of the Chinese crown, neighbors of, and related to, the Japanese. In one temple they worshiped three gods: *Urago Sorisu* (whom they also called *Omegua Turegui*), *Ura Sana*, and *Ura Po*. They brought them offerings consisting of food and drink. In the word *Omegua* the syllables *Ome* are evidently the words *amu ama*, "father," "mother," which is common to the Mongolian languages. *Ura* is an appellative for god, which we find among the other savage tribes of the Aimares in the expressions *juru*, *guru*, *taru* and *tiri*, and which seems to bear a relation to the word *Taara* of the Ugrofins. Previous to their conversion to Christianity the Fins called their supreme divinity *Taara*. The Fins were a branch of the Ugro family that had their ancient abodes between the river Volga and the Aral sea and whose supreme god must have been the same *Taara*.

Eastward from the Ugros extended the Tartaric nations as far as Eastern Asia, where they were mixed with the Mongolians. The South American descendants of these Ugro Tartars kept their name for god in the different forms *taru*, *juru*, *ura* in use.

Among the *Jurukarians* of Bolivia we find the name *taru* in the form of *tiri*. With this name traditions are connected which plainly remind one of the fall of man, of the deluge, and of the tower of Babylon related in Genesis. *Tiri* was “*Lord of the entire nature.*” This presupposes the idea that he had in bygone ages been thought of as the creator of the world. Being all alone and longing for a friend, he created the first man out of the nail of his big toe and called him *Karu*. *Karu* begot children with a hocco-bird. But his son died—reminiscence of old—and *he himself against the command of Tiri, ate a fruit from a tree, a kind of almond, grown on his son's grave.* *Tiri* had told him his son would be called back to life, he should be careful *not to eat from that tree.* When he nevertheless ate *Tiri* told him: *Thou hast been disobedient; for punishment thou and all men shall be mortals and ye shall labor and be distressed.* At *Tiri's* command *Karu* then ate a duck, whereupon he vomited and threw up all classes of birds. A spirit, called *Sararuma* or also *Aima-sunne*, then caused a world-wide conflagration. The traditions of some tribes have substituted a great fire for the deluge of the Bible. One single man saved his life in a cave and at times held out a twig which was singed at first, but remained uninjured by and by. Out of the cave now came forth the various nations of the earth—evidently in the person of this one man, their progenitor, the *Noah* of the Bible—namely the *Mansinnos*, *Solorotus*, *Quitchuas*, *Chiriguano*s and others. These were the tribes known to the *Jurukarians*. But as one man came out of the cave, who wanted to predominate over all, *Tiri* closed the entrance, commanded all men to separate and to people the whole earth, and sowed seed of discontentment amongst them. In consequence of this they armed themselves with arrows, which fell down from the

sun. The Jurukarians claim to have derived from the Man-sinnos. The Quitchua or Ketchua tongue, which later became the national language of the empire of the Incas, had long been used in Bolivia and Peru when the Incas arrived.

The *Abipones* on the banks of the river Parana in Paraguay worship a god of storm whom they call *Pilla*. The Araucanians in Chile designate god, the supreme spirit, with the same word, only suffixing the letter n. The *Pillan* of the Araucanians, as we shall see, dwells in a smoking volcano of Chile. *Pilla* seems to have derived from the Old Peruvian word *villa* which means "to speak." Consequently, the Abipones took the roaring of the storm, the Araucanians the eruption of the volcano, for the "utterances of god." Did the Abipones wander from Peru as far as the river Parana, other Tartaric-Mongolian hordes crossed the Andes, roamed through Chile and made their abodes with their god Pilla among the Araucanians. The latter have still the word Pilla as appellative; *Guen-Pillan* "Celestial Spirit" is with them the special Pillan, i. e. Spirit, God, who created all things. We shall also find Peruvian customs among the Araucanians.

Among the Abipones, as also among some tribes along the Amazon river, one meets with the very rare custom that the man acts as though he too were sick, during the time his wife is confined. He lies down, and at the close goes through a ceremony of purification. But this is an Asiatic *usage*. In antiquity it was found among the Tibarenes in Armenia and is still customary among the Miao in China. — *Figures of sculpture* which in Brazil have occasionally been found cut in rocks and which represent the sun and moon, reptiles and other monsters, have striking similarities with analogous sculptures in Siberia.

C) THE CHIBCHAS.

100 to 1538 A. D.

The northwest of South America is occupied by the republic of Colombia, which country formerly bore the name of New Granada. In the southern section of this country the Andes mountains divide into two ranges running northward. From the eastern range extensive table-lands, called llanos, slope down towards the lowlands of Venezuela, while the western range follows the coast of the Pacific and has its prolongation in the mountains of Panama. Between both ranges in Colombia an extensive table-land lies, which is drained in its entire length from south to north by the river Magdalena which receives the Cauca from the west and empties into the Caribbean Sea. In the central section of the table-land, between the Magdalena and the eastern range the organized kingdom of the Chibchas was established. In the year 1538 it was discovered and conquered by a Spanish expedition, headed by Jimenez de Quezada, which had started from the Caribbean Sea and had pressed their way through the native forests for one whole year. Having encountered innumerable hardships, many Spaniards had succumbed on that memorable campaign and those who remained were in a starving condition when one day they spied green fields, whereby their sunken courage was revived. The natives raised corn, potatoes, and cotton. From the last they fabricated goods for clothing which they dyed. Those natives were the Chibchas. They formed no part of the kingdom of Quito, had lived there for ages, and ranked second in the Pre-European civilization of South America, being surpassed only by the Peruvians. The kingdom comprised an area of 5400 square miles, being little more than half the size of the state of New Hampshire; but it had a population of 1,200,000 persons, and therefore more than twice the number of New Hampshire's inhabitants. They averaged 222 persons to the square mile, while the present republic of Colombia has

only 8½ persons on a square mile. While in the east the Chibchas were protected by the mountain range against the wild hordes of the llanos, in the north the Laches, Agataes, and Guanes had their abodes, and in the west along the Magdalena the Musos, Colimas, and Panches were established. These last named tribes, especially the Panches, belonged to a race entirely distinct from the Chibchas, which circumstance is proven by the fact that they were their irreconcilable enemies. They belonged to the Caribbean race, wore no dresses, lived mainly from robbery, and disturbed the navigation on the Magdalena even yet one hundred years after the conquests of the Spaniards.

The government of the Chibchas was divided between two equally powerful sovereigns—the Zipa who resided in the capital Muqueta (now Funza) and the Zaque who had his residence in Tunja. Zipa and Zaque are no proper names, but titles for sovereigns, as king, prince etc. The nephew of the sovereign, i. e. the son of his sister, was heir to the crown. The prince made his preparations for the duties he was to take upon himself in a place expressly designated for that purpose. There existed among the Chibchas a numerous nobility whose members held ranks and offices very much like those of the curacas of the Ancient Peruvians. The wealthiest and most eminent nobles were distinguished by the honored title of Ubzaque which is equal to the English duke, or also by that of Guiquae which is similar to the English baron or earl. The four mightiest Ubzaques constituted the electoral princes who elected and inaugurated the heir to the crown. All nobles were highly esteemed by their respective subjects and exercised equal rights in the execution of laws and regulations.

Besides the civil authority, *a high priest* exerted an extensive influence and claimed an indisputable authority in the dominion of the Zaque. He resided in the main temple in Suamoz (now Sagomoso), in the venerable district of Iraca. He held the office of a guardian of religious rights, preserved the

traditions, and watched over the exercising of religious precepts. In the territory of the Zipa there was no religious authority apart from the civil; at the time of the Spanish invasion both appear to have vested in one supreme sovereign.

When the Spanish expedition under Quezada was in camp before Suamoz where the highpriest lived, two soldiers were tempted in the darkness of the night to enter the temple through a window which they forced open. In the interior they lit a torch which they had in readiness and in the reflected rays of their light they saw the bright splendor of gold with which the temple was decorated. The highpriest, not being inclined to flee or to abandon the sanctuary, stepped forth out of his apartment in his priestly attire, and, facing the intruders in his imposing appearance, filled them with awe. Did it happen through the carelessness of the Spaniards, as many historians assert, or did it occur through the just indignation of the priest, who saw the sanctuary exposed to profanity and sacrilege and could not defend it, as the Chibchas say; the temple was set on fire, the highpriest perished in the flames, and with him "the tradition of a people, the history of a nation, was lost to the world."

The Chibchas called the creator *Chiminigagua*; but the idea of an invisible creator of the world had been lost before the Spanish conquest. *Chibchacum* was the divine guardian of the Chibchas, *Mensatao* was the god of the dyers of clothing, *Chaquen* the protector of crops. It seems that the god of their drinking-bouts and debaucheries was *Fomagata*, which was similar to the Bacchus of the Romans and was even adored as an evil spirit or devil. The religious running with its shameless evil practices and other ceremonies were dedicated to his services and will be described later on. Dr. Ebrard reports that Fomagata did originally not belong to the Chibchas deities, but had been imported from Central America and introduced among the Chibchas. The latter held concerning this deity, that in ancient times he had passed through the air as a fiery spirit, had changed men into animals, had been an odious spirit,

and had been dethroned by *Bochika*. About Bochika, also called Neuqueteva, tradition says that he had come from a far-away country, made laws for the people, taught them how to weave, to cultivate the soil, and to honor the gods. Bochika had staid with them a thousand years, had given them doctrines and instructions which they should guard as a treasure, and had finally disappeared towards the rising of the sun. — The rainbow was to the Chibchas the sign of peace between heaven and earth. At their festivals two men carried a net about as the emblem of death, whereby the living should be reminded of the uncertainty of life and the more fortunate of the end of all human glory.

Concerning the sayings about *Bochika*, it becomes evident that he was a religious instructor, a reformer and benefactor, who came into the country long, long ago. He undoubtedly had come with a large number of immigrants whose leader he may have been. Bochika and his company found inhabitants in the country, who could neither weave nor till the soil. They belonged to the aborigines of South America whom we shall find scattered all over the continent. Bochika and his immigrants must be classified as contemporaries of the Japanese who settled down in Peru 100 A. D. Colombia, then, had two immigrations before the Spaniards, the Japanese Chibchas and the Aborigines.

The organization of the Chibchas reminds of Ancient Peru and, at the same time, of Japan. The Ubzaques who were quite independent, remind of the Old Peruvian Curacas. The landed properties were private possessions and were inherited by the children, as in the Old Peruvian kingdoms, not as in the communistic empire of the Incas. The hereditary feudal nobility reminds of the Daimios of Japan.

In regard to the founding of their kingdom the Chibchas had the saying that Hunkawha had brought them into the country, had established the kingdom, built the city of Tunja which originally was called Hunka, had conquered neighboring dis-

tricts, governed 250 years, and had 200 wives. Since Japan's oldest name was Hwa, we have a Japanese word in Hunkawha.

In consequence of the preceding and also of the Chibchas language which resembles the Japanese, we are justified to take *the Chibchas for a contingent of the Japanese-Mongolian immigration to which also the Ancient Peruvian kingdoms owed their existence*. In the asylum of that table-land, protected against the hordes of the eastern llanos, they had maintained their existence, their organization and, to some extent, their customs since 100 A. D., almost 1500 years, when the Spaniards found them. As is known, the Spaniards, unfortunately, did not undertake their expeditions for the noble humanitarian purpose to seek the welfare of new discovered humanity, nor for the scientific purpose of transmitting the histories of antique kingdoms to posterity; but they were rather actuated by the cold-blooded desire after gold which suppressed every noble aspiration. Only the latest history of the Chibchas was recorded. For lack of space we shall refer to a few customs only to characterize this interesting people.

THE CEREMONY OF FASTING AND CROWNING.

To prepare for the government the crown prince who was the nephew of the king, had to fast six years in a cave designated for that purpose. During this time he was not allowed to associate with females, had to abstain from the use of meat, of salt, of red pepper, or was he permitted to look at the sun. Only at night time could he leave the cave to behold the moon and the stars, but had to retire before the sun could shine on him. The six years' course having ended the prince underwent the ceremony of crowning. This was celebrated at lake Guatavita which was regarded as sacred. Here he brought offerings to the devil who was god and lord of the Chibchas. On the shores of the lake they decorated and embellished a large raft profusely and placed four large coal-pans on it, on which they threw much moque, the incense of the natives, tur-

pentine, and various fragrant plants. The shores of the lake were occupied by men and women who had decorated themselves with plumes and crowns, studded with gold, for the festival. As soon as the incense in the pans blazed up, they lit bonfires on the shores which emitted so much smoke, that the sunlight was dimmed. In the meantime they stripped the hereditary prince of his clothes, smeared him over with a sticky clay, and bestrewed him with gold-dust so abundantly that he was completely covered with this metal. Thus they led him on the raft on which he remained standing; at his feet they amassed precious stones and more gold to bring these as an offering to Fomagata, the devil. Look at him on the raft! Is he not the golden man, i. e. el dorado? There the term El Dorado came into existence. And the Chibchas prince covered with gold-dust is the only El Dorado that ever existed. With him four of the most prominent Ubzaques who were the electoral princes, adorned with plumes, golden crowns, bracelets, and earrings, and carrying their offerings, entered the raft. As soon as the raft was pushed from the shore, all instruments, cornets, trumpets, drums, and so forth resounded and such loud cheering was raised that hills and valleys re-echoed. These acclamations continued, till the raft had arrived at the middle of the lake, when the signal for silence was given with a flag. El dorado prince then brought his offerings by throwing all the gold and precious stones that were at his feet into the lake. Thereupon the Ubzaques, accompanying him, did the same. Next all five plunged into the water to wash the gold-dust and the clay off in the holy lake. The offerings having been completed the flag still fluttering in the breeze, was lowered. While now the raft was rowed back to the shore, the rejoicings and instruments resounded anew and the lively music soon incited to merry dances, dances that were executed in very large circles. After such ceremonies the people received the crowned ruler in full festive joy and recognized him as their lord and sovereign.

The name "*El Dorado*" that is known the world over and has become a snare to many, owes its origin to this ceremony. 'El dorado' are the Spanish words for 'the golden one.' As regards the origin and circulation of this name it is reported that Sebastian de Belalcazar, the conqueror of Quito, met, on his expedition in Ecuador, an Indian who told the gold-seeking Spaniards how in his country the crown prince was covered with gold at the ceremony of crowning, how everything was made golden and many festivals were celebrated. Sebastian, filled with surprise, exclaimed: "Up! let us look for El Dorado!" He came to the country of the Chibchas, founded some towns; but he did not find El Dorado. The name of El Dorado spread over the West Indian islands, came to Spain and all the European countries, without the understanding of its true signification. Later it was believed the expression to mean "a land of gold in South America with golden mountains." The word for a long time worked as a charm and in the search of El Dorado many lives were lost, as we shall learn.

The religious custom of running. This was a popular religious custom of the Chibchas, which had been prescribed by inviolable laws and observed since immemorial times. It consisted in running around a large surface of land so that the run was more than fifty miles from start to finish. The corners of the territory were five lakes lying far apart and considered sacred. On their shores buildings and altars were erected for the purpose of worship. Between the lakes, principally on elevations, were smaller places of worship which also served as indications of the course to be pursued. The most prominent place of worship was lake Guatavita where the princes were crowned; the second was lake Guasca. All the five lakes were altars where the people sacrificed their gold and precious stones by casting them into the water. The more valuable sacrifices the people delivered to the watery element, the dearer those singular altars became to them. Immeasurable treasures the

Chibchas must have deposited in the sacred lakes in the course of their long history.

The running around the territory the inhabitants of the Ubaque valley began, together with the people of the great plain of Bogata, at lake Ubaque, while the people of Guatavita and vicinity and the subjects of the Zaque of Tunja began to run at the great lake Guatavita. It seems they performed the running in opposite directions, for the mountains and high elevations were covered with enormous masses of people when the ones met with the others. In definite stations crowns were deposited as prizes for those who arrived there first. The victor gained the honor to pass for the most holy among the competitors. As soon, then, as the runners saw a lake or a hill in whose sanctuary a crown awaited the victor, they exerted all their strength, pursuing their course with the greatest speed, to gain the crown. In the combats and wars that might occur in the ensuing year, those troops who had a prize winner amongst them, usually won the victory. Therefore, the Chibchas had reasons enough why every one exerted all his strength to reach the sanctuary first. Many collapsed on the way from exertion, others died afterwards from the consequences. Such dead and also those who succumbed at the debaucheries of the following nights, were entombed in the caverns of the mountains and were reverenced as martyrs, for it was believed that Fomagata had carried their souls away. Images, gold, and costly blankets were dedicated to them. The festival in which various exercises alternated continued twenty days and was celebrated for religious purposes. Had it in former times borne a purer aspect? In later years very low practices had become predominant and vice itself was practiced as a religious action. Between the principal sanctuaries, lakes Guatavita and Ubaque, public establishments were kept in which much chicha (cider) was deposited for the nightly debaucheries. Then unspeakable deeds of infamy were committed. At dances and wild music the vices of Sodom and Gomorrah were

practiced and more shameless than in those cities of old; for with the Chibchas vice was religious. He who indulged most was most acceptable and he who collapsed was the most holy. What a deviltry in such a perversion!

Fresle who was born in Bogata, declared that the devil was the teacher of the Chibchas in their religious ceremonies and ways and that they served him as his followers, that he had erected his dominion amongst them, and that they served him consciously in their festivals, erected him altars, and honored him as their god. That the Chibchas held the greatest debauchee for the holiest, reminds of the Semitic worship of Baal and Astarde in which sensuality was taken for a religious passion and sin for a god pleasing deed. Into such abnormal errors human conscience could fall only through the influence and training of the evil seducer. Not that the Chibchas were derived from the Semites; their Japanese origin has been demonstrated. Not that they served Baal; their Bacchus was Fomagata. This god whose service may formerly have been rendered morally pure, had been degraded to an evil spirit, to a devil. The African tribes of the Caribbeans, who were addicted to an infamous immorality and who, e. g. the Panches, were the western neighbors of the Chibchas will have brought this infamy among the latter. These, however, susceptible to all kinds of voluptuous living, introduced it into *the worship of Fomagata*, i. e. *the devil*. Thus the adoration of the devil, to whom it does not matter whether he is called Beelzebub, or Baal, or Fomagata, was established in the religious ceremonies, the sacrifices, and the infamous debaucheries of the Chibchas. What the devil had accomplished in antiquity in eastern Asia, namely to have men consider voluptuousness, the sins of Sodom, god-pleasing deeds, that he also brought about in the northwest of South America. Here, however, he carried perversiveness still a step further, for the devil made himself the god of a nation and was adored by the people as god.

Let us now go back to the rural running. In the latter

days when it was known that all the people had concluded the run, the ubzaques, superiors, and nobles of the people met at lake Guatavita, where wild revelries were continued still three days longer. Much moque and turpentine were still burned day and night. On the last feast-day all the gold and jewels the people had brought for the purpose of offering, were carried on large, richly decorated rafts. While now a grand kind of music was made by the trumpeters, drummers, and pipers in which the people on the shores joined with rejoicings and while the bonfires were lighted, filling the sky with smoke and cinder; the rafts were rowed to the middle of the lake, where the last offerings were brought to the devil, by throwing the precious metals into the deep. With this act the festival of the rural running ended and everybody went home.

At the time of Fresle the well founded report constantly circulated that there was *much gold in all the five lakes* and that lake Guatavita held a large treasure. Basing his hopes upon such rumors Anton de Sepulveda made a contract with Philip III., king of Spain, to drain lake Guatavita. Having completed the first drainage canal, he could pick up \$12,000 worth of gold from the shores that were laid dry. Further attempts to regain gold from this lake were in vain, as it is very deep and its bottom muddy. Different Spaniards tried to raise the treasures hidden in lakes Ubaque and Guasca, but without any result. — According to rumor there were two gold alligators living and rich treasures of precious metals and jewels hidden in lake Teusaca. Besides others, our reporter, Sr. Fresle, also coveted those treasures and also desired to catch a gold alligator. He took a native who was at home at the lake into his service to be his guide. Having traveled so far that they could see the water in the distance, the Indian from superstitious reverence fell headlong to the ground. Fresle could neither lift him up nor make him utter a single word. He had to leave him lie and to return home without having accomplished anything.

The war between Bogata and Guatavita serves to give more information about conditions of the kingdom of the Chibchas and leads their history up to the Spanish invasion. The marshal of one of the last sovereigns of Guatavita was called *Bogata*. After this man the capital of present Colombia was named. At the time when Marshal Bogata was in power it happened that the inhabitants of the northern section of the kingdom rebelled against their sovereign, the lord of *Guatavita*. They denied him obedience and payment of taxes, indeed all that was due him, and took up arms against him. When the king obtained notice of these occurrences and saw the necessity of quenching the fire before it might break out in bright flames, causing much harm; he sent his quemes, i. e. messengers, with two golden crowns, the visible signs of command, to Bogata with the message that as soon as he saw the crowns, he should unite all his warriors to attack the rebels with a strong force and to prosecute the war, until he had defeated the enemies and brought them back to obedience. Bogata organized an army of 30,000 men, crossed the mountains, and entered the valleys and plains of the rebels. Several engagements took place, in which many were killed on both sides. As the king constantly supplied the army with new troops, keeping it always ready for action, the marshal who pushed the war with determination was able to subdue the rebels and levy the taxes that were due his lord. He returned home victoriously and laden with taxes and rich spoils.

At his return Bogata sent the large amount of taxes and a part of the spoils to his lord and laid the honor of victory down at his feet. Then the captains and soldiers of his army desired to arrange feasts to celebrate Bogata's victories in the accustomed revelries. On Bogata's estate they prepared a very prominent feast. Having become intoxicated they began to call out the name of their marshal, to praise his heroic deeds, and to proclaim him their sovereign. They told him that by right he ought to be their only lord, that it would be easy for

them to put him on the throne and to keep him in power; all would obey him. King Guatavita was not a man of warlike disposition, but rather delighted in a life of luxury and self-contentment. But when he became aware of those proceedings, he surrounded his person with a bodyguard of 2000 men. He then sent his quemes to Bogata with the message to appear at the court within three days. Bogata excused himself with the reply that he had only lately paid attention to the sovereign, presented the messengers with rich gifts, and dismissed them with kind words. Then without delay the sly marshal called a military council in which he secretly ordered his officers to get the army ready to march. This was done without hesitation. The king highly disturbed by the declining answer of his marshal, sent two other messengers to him. Bogata immediately caused them to return to tell their lord that he would see him next day. Thereupon he ordered his captains to divide the army that now was 40,000 men strong, in two equally strong divisions. He sent one division ahead to bid the king good day; but the latter, having been informed about the approaching danger, had fled. With the other division Bogata visited the surrounding towns and country districts for the purpose of gaining the people over to him. These willingly promised him obedience, because his name sounded more agreeable to them and promised them more liberty than that of the king.

The fugitive sovereign soon thought of revenge. There still remained to him the possibility to gather a considerable military force. For to him still belonged all the territory that extended over a distance of a three days' journey and the mountainous districts of the Chios and their valleys were at that time densely populated. The Chios furnished king Guatavita numerous warriors for this war which occurred in 1537 and recognized his successors as their legitimate sovereigns until into the 17th century. The king also sent to Ramiriqui (then doubtless Zaque) of Tunja for assistance against his

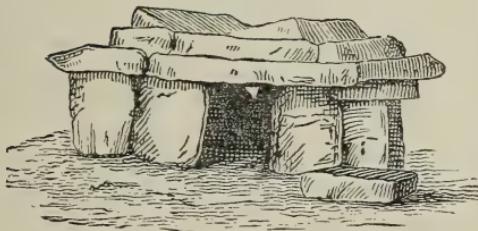
rival. As Ramiriqui felt revengeful toward Bogata, because the latter had fallen into his country at a time when he himself had to endure hard struggles with the Panches; he promised the king help and united large forces for that purpose. In the meanwhile the king had opened the campaign against Bogata by marching up the valley of Gachita. The rebel marshal, well informed about all the plans of his opponent and calmly trusting in his powerful and skilled army and in his chivalrous officers, marched to meet the approaching enemy. The two armies were already in touch with one another, skirmishes were already going on between the contending forces, when priests, chekes, and mohanes stepped forward to remind the warriors of the circumstances that the time had come when offerings should be brought to the gods and the ceremony of rural running be opened. Since tribute should be paid to the gods before the battle be fought, they proposed a postponement of hostilities of twenty days or more. The proposal was accepted.

Men and women sallied forth from both encampments, saluted one another and joined hands for very long circular dances, accompanied by lively music. They danced, and ate and drank, not as though they belonged to opposing armies, not as though they were full of bitter feelings. Having spent three days in dancing, debaucheries, and unrestrained lusts, order was given to begin the running from lake-altar to lake-altar, as related heretofore. On the eve before the run careful Bogata summoned his officers and admonished them to give their troops the secret order to carry their weapons concealed while they run and at a signal, to be understood by all, to attack their enemies in case these should pursue the running inoffensively. The order was promptly executed. At dawn of the morning much shouting and music was heard in Bogata's camp, not a man keeping silent. While Guatavita's people took up the run first, Bogata's men got ready to occupy their places and climbed up on the mountains so as not to stay

behind in the contest. Hills and valleys soon were covered with enormous masses of people, each one striving to win a prize. When the soldiers of Bogata's camp were convinced that their opponents pursued their course unconcernedly, the officers gave their men the signal they had agreed on;—and horrible was the slaughter that followed. The king then saw with horror the imminent danger in which he and his army had fallen and favored by the darkness of the following night, withdrew hastily through the valley of Gachita, leaving his camp and a numerous people in the hands of the enemy.

After this victory to which falsehood and shrewdness had largely contributed, messengers brought the report to Bogata that the Panches, having seen the country unprotected, had made raids into it, had killed the few opposing them, and had dragged away men, women, and children, and much property. Other messengers reported that Ramiriqui, the Zaque of Tunja, was marching with a strong force to the assistance of the Zipa of Guatavita. These alarming reports reached Bogata when he was about to enter the town of Guatavita, the residence of the fugitive sovereign. He found the place deserted, as all the old folk and other people unfit for war had gone away. While he was at this town and made preparations to march against Ramiriqui, his flying squadron brought two messengers to him whom Ramiriqui had sent to the fugitive king. These bore the message that a number of strange men, never seen before, had come into the country in the direction of Velez, men who had hair in their faces. Some of them were traveling on large animals that could talk, uttering loud voices, voices that could not be understood. He, Ramiriqui, would secure himself a place of refuge in his own country and advised the king to do the same in his country. Bogata was greatly pleased with this message, reporting this enemy's return. He decreed a general amnesty in consequence of which many fugitives returned to the town. While he then sent a division of troops to the great Savannas to repair the

damages the Panches had wrought on the western frontier, he himself marched at the head of another division to the plain of Nemocon where the unknown strangers were said to come into the country. Seeing but a small number of strangers, it seems that Bogata dismissed the larger part of his soldiers, retaining only a reduced number of selected warriors to oppose the few Spaniards. Under the leadership of Jimenez de Querzada they had advanced from the Caribbean Sea in a march of one entire year, their number having decreased from 900 men to 166. As the people of the Chibchas were numerous, the Spaniards called them moscas, flies. With this incident we leave the history of the Chibchas which, however, we shall have to take up again when we relate the conquest of their country by the Spaniards.



AFRICAN TRIBES.

Simultaneously with the Mongolians there lived in South America tribes of African type. When Columbus explored the northern coast of South America in 1499, everywhere he met a dark-colored race of men. Since we learned from the Chibchas that they had constantly to contend with Caribbean tribes, i. e. with the Panches and Colimas along the Magdalena, and since negro tribes mingled with the Botokudes on the banks of the Amazon in Brazil; we conclude that the entire northern section of the continent was inhabited by a dark-colored race, extending far into the interior. They distinguished themselves from the Chibchas and the Peruvians very decidedly by their darker complexions and their eyes, by their mode of living which consisted in trade and robbery, by their barbarous customs and their worship of the moon. As the Panches and others living west of the Chibchas, were Caribbean tribes, so also were the wild hordes, roaming on the llanos that extend beyond the eastern mountain range, as far as the river Orinoco in Venezuela. On the banks of the Orinoco which winds its course through the tropical forest in many arms which overflow their banks and form an almost boundless sea, Mr. Federman found dark-colored people, living like monkeys on the trees.

The dark people who lived on the continent were by name distinguished from those inhabiting the adjacent islands; the former being called *Carinas*, the latter, *Caribas* and *Canibas*. After the last name the Spaniards called all of them *Canibales*, from which the English cannibals is derived. As all those dark people ate human flesh, this name has attained the exclusive meaning of a man eating savage. When the Spaniards first came in contact with them, they had begun to subdue the Arnakas who lived on the West Indian islands. They took the women of the killed Arnakas for wives, who, however, continued to speak their native tongue and to retain their idols in

their new relations of life. The Caribbeans made their living principally by carrying on trade with tribes that lived between the mouths of the Orinoco and the Amazon and by maritime robbery. Their national characteristic was piracy. They constructed vessels forty feet long and equipped them with two or three masts, eight or nine rowing benches, and a rudder. Thirty to forty such vessels would constitute a fleet. They observed the movements of the heavenly bodies and thus calculated the seasons, years, and months. With their sea-trade and piracy they carried on a trade with slaves — evidently an African characteristic. The reader will notice the utter difference between the Caribbeans and the Ancient Peruvians who cultivated the soil and erected substantial stone-buildings. The Caribbeans even sold children of their own tribes and fattened the captured boys of their enemies before they ate them. On account of their exceedingly sly and sudden attacks and their poisoned arrows, they were very dangerous. It is but natural that the Spaniards held them for the wildest of the savages. Being pirates and slave traders, they had no mind for agriculture. Only the women of the Caribbeans raised some manioc about their huts and knew how to weave cloth which they wore around the hips. This was, indeed, their only piece of clothing.

There are, however, remnants of a civilization even in the low condition of these barbaric Caribbeans. Their shipbuilding is such a remnant. Besides weaving, their wives knew how to make earthen vessels, some of which could hold twenty gallons. A beast-like people, such as they were when the Spaniards came among them, could not acquire those abilities; but a people might retain them for centuries, while it sinks from its moral and social standing. There were among the Caribbeans even traces and remnants of ancient hieroglyphics. Also their organization revealed traces of orderly ambitions of by-gone times; for all their tribes formed one great confederacy of sea-robbers while they themselves lived in mutual

peace. In their extensive maritime trade they attacked and robbed strangers and undertook real expeditions for the purpose of conquering.

Who were the Caribbeans and where did they come from? They were not negroes; for their complexion was not black, or their hair woolly, or their physiognomy that of negroes. They were, however, colored, had sleek hair, were built after the type of the inhabitants of North Africa. The native land of the colored race is Africa; particularly African also is the slave-trade. The inhabitants of the north and northwest coast of Africa were in ancient times known as daring seamen, traders, and pirates, degenerating more to piracy in the course of time. Since ages they were the pirates of the Mediterranean. To the North Africans the Caribbeans bear great resemblance as far as their dark-brown complexion, their sleek, not woolly, hair, their strong physical constitution, and their national traits are concerned. Navigation from Africa to South America is easy, because it is natural. Ocean currents are sea-routes and some connect continents. From Africa's northwest coast such a watery route leads to the South American northeast coast. A vessel wrecking off the coast of North West Africa, say near the Canary islands, might be driven into the vicinity of the mouth of the Orinoco. Such a carriage by the ocean current has actually taken place. For instance, in the year 1797 twelve negro slaves escaped from the coast of Africa, entered a boat, and were left to good fortune. Five weeks later they landed at Barbados, one of the small West Indian islands. This incident is said not to be the only one. South of the equator a broad ocean current flows that would carry a vessel from the river Congo to Brazil. Here that current is divided into two arms embracing the entire eastern coast of South America by stretching one arm to the northwest as far as the Caribbean Sea and the other in a southerly direction as far as Fireland. Now it has actually happened that European ships got to South America by chance. When, for in-

stance, in March 1500 the king of Portugal ordered Peter Alvarez Cabral to sail with a fleet to India by the way of Good Hope, the admiral kept away from Africa's coast to avoid the calm that is prevailing there and being carried westward by the current, discovered land at his right. He landed, and found himself in the gulf of Bahia in Brazil. He took possession of the land in the name of the Portuguese king and thus Brazil became Portuguese possession.

What occurred in modern times, likely also took place formerly. All conditions indicate that daring seamen of the Libyan tribes of North Africa came to the valley of the Orinoco, spread over the entire north of the continent, and became the terror of the Caribbean Sea, which has its name from one of their tribes, the Caribas. With the North Africans of former times, the physiognomy, piracy and slave-trade of the Caribbeans harmonize perfectly.

There are *negro tribes* in eastern Brazil. They likewise have sleek hair, but distinguish themselves from the Caribbeans by their mode of living and especially by the fact that they make gigantic earthen vessels in cone-form in which they bury their dead in upright, almost standing position. In an entirely analogous manner do the Congo negroes dig and build holes in the earth that increase with depth conically. In these they entomb their chiefs in just such positions. Congo negroes must have found their way to Brazil on the broad south equatorial ocean current. With man cultivated plants migrate from country to country. Mr. Candolle is of the conviction that the nourishing yamroot was brought from Africa to South America.

PERIOD III

SOUTH AMERICA'S ABORIGINES

1500 B. C. to 100 A. D.

THREE PROOFS FOR THE EXISTENCE OF AN ABORIGINAL RACE.

THE peoples and tribes of South America which we have learned to know so far, were descendants of Mongolian and African nationalities; but they were not South America's first inhabitants. The Ancient Peruvians especially and also the Chibchas knew from *tradition* that their ancestors had found a population in America when they immigrated. We have at the proper place spoken of the Old Peruvian national god Pachacamac. The tradition of this people knows of still another national god, called *Con*. This god *Con*, like Pachacamac of old, was spiritual and almighty. *Con* had dwelled in the whole universe, had raised the Andes mountains, had made the valleys level, and filled rivers, lakes, and oceans with water. Having given life to men he had peopled the earth with them; but men proved themselves unworthy of so many blessings, failed to obey their creator, and led culpable lives.

Therefore god *Con* punished them by turning them into animals and making the land sterile. According to one version Pachacamac was the son of *Con* and came to reign over this world later than *Con*. Another view claims that god *Con* entered the country from the north and was for a long time the supreme god of the Peruvians and that god Pachacamac came from the south, dethroned *Con*, and changed men into monkeys.

These two national divinities of Ancient Peru were the supreme gods of two distinct races that inhabited the country in succession. That *Con* was first in possession of the world wants to say that his worshipers inhabited Peru first; these

Con worshipers were the original inhabitants. That Pachacamac, as tradition says, came from the south and dethroned god Con evidently has the meaning that his worshipers, the Japanese, entered Peru from Bolivia and established their religion and civilization in the country in which god Con's worship had prevailed so long. And the saying that Con turned men into animals and Pachacamac particularly into monkeys doubtless means to say that Peru's first inhabitants had sunken very low and were living like animals, when the half-civilized Japanese, wearing clothing, immigrated. Those aborigines lived on trees and, therefore, were called monkeys by the Japanese immigrants.

Besides the traditions, *the absence of architectural remains* furnishes an important evidence of an aboriginal population, prior to the Ancient Peruvian. We have learned to know the Mongolian Peruvians as a race eminently skillful in architectural work and in other employments. Yes, the people of today still marvel at their imposing structures. Nations kindred to them, such as the Shyriites in Ecuador, the Chibchas in Colombia, the Manshusikuers in Paraguay erected temples and other solid edifices and embellished them. Wherever members of this ingenious race made their abode, there we find various traces of civilization. The Incas took possession of the rich estate of this people; but when they extended their conquests southward and entered Chile in the 15th century, they found no signs of skillful labor anywhere. Nor did the Spaniards in the following century, find, in Chile as far south as they went, anything but poor, unskilled natives, natives who lived in lightly built huts and lived meagerly. South of the Biobio the Spaniards were confronted, as we shall learn, by courageous, warlike natives; however, works of art and architecture could not be found in all Chile. Neither did the Indians of the Argentine pampas erect edifices, nor were they able to apply skillful ability. One would expect the inhabitants of the south temperate zone with its severe climate to

secure for themselves ample protection against rain and storm and the winter's cold. Their country did not lack timber or stones for building purposes; but they did not know how to put the raw material to use. They made huts of reed and clay, lacking the elementary requirements of civilized life. Yes, the fact that the people of a severe climate lived in miserable huts, while the inhabitants of torrid Peru erected structures of rocks so firm and solid as to defy centuries,—this fact is a distinguishing characteristic, a feature that proves the difference of races. Chile and the Argentine pampas were originally not inhabited by people from Peru, though Ancient Peruvians mingled with Chilean natives; the natives of these countries did not belong to the Mongolian race.

With the very primitive condition of the Chilean and Argentine natives that of the Aborigines of Peru harmonizes. They had but the rudimentary knowledge of life, for they left no signs of architectural works. They were naked or partly naked and lived on trees, for which reason the Japanese immigrants looked at them with contempt. Artificial mounds about 100 feet high, thrown up to bury the dead and to worship, are the only traces of their existence in Peru. The life of these aboriginal Peruvians was absorbed by that of the Japanese Mongolians, and the worship of god Con was replaced by that of Pachacamac. — In Brazil descendants of these first inhabitants are existing up to the present time, as in Argentina and in Chile. For there are tribes still extant in that country that are not kindred to the African race which constitutes the main portion of its native population. The Brazilian aborigines which lived near the coast built mounds or hills from sea-shells, called sambaques. The shells were arranged in layers and have attracted the attention of scientific travelers, who have investigated the sambaques and written detailed articles on them. Thus we find aborigines in Chile, in Argentina, in Brazil, and traces of them in Peru and Colombia.

After tradition and absence of architectural remains we advance *public vices and virtues* as proofs for a third race in Primitive South America. Among the Ancient Peruvians and among nations and tribes kindred to them we met voluptuousness in different forms, national vices that permeated and corrupted every tribe. In Peru the Incas endeavored to put a stop to the pernicious evil; among the Botokudes it had accepted the saddest forms; among the Chibchas it led to devilish perversion and worship. Let no one say that similar vices are common to all natives. To one race or people they are peculiar; to another, entirely foreign. As far as we know the South American aborigines, they were chaste and socially pure; adultery had no place amongst them. Public sentiment revolted against an exceptional case in such a manner that the perpetrator was condemned to death. Nor can a trace of cannibalism or slavery be found among the aborigines. Not yet cultured by civilized life, not yet corrupted by public vices, the first inhabitants of South America present themselves to us as a third race.

Thus the reader will be convinced, that already before the Japanese-Mongolian immigration there existed in South America an aboriginal race. The Japanese-Mongolians had lived and labored in Peru and adjacent countries over a thousand years when the Incas arrived in 1250, having reached their American abodes about 100 A. D. Consequently the aborigines had roamed over the continent, already long before the Christian era. They did not all arrive at the same time. One company or tribe was moved out of its place and pushed forward by another. The wandering went on from west to east. They came from the western islands from across the Pacific ocean; they came from Malaysia and were Malays. The most of them landed at the coast of Chile and, continuing their wanderings towards the east and the north, they scattered over the larger part of the continent sparingly already in remote antiq-

uity. The historic proofs of these broad-cast thoughts we shall give later.

Of all the aborigines those of South Chile, this rendezvous of the Malay immigration, developed most vigorously. Here south of the river Maule the valiant tribes of the Promaucaes lived. All the tribes bearing this name appear to have formed a close confederacy; for as late as the 15th century they were strong enough to keep the Incas in check. The latter, experienced in warfare, and, as we have learned, having defeated many an old Peruvian kingdom and tribe, marched victoriously through northern Chile, till they reached the river Maule where their march was checked and where they were repulsed by the Promaucaes. These Chilean natives retained their independence from the Incas; and those still farther south were never conquered by any army, either Spanish or Chilean. These latter natives who were never subdued are the Araucanians, whom we shall present to our readers as specimens of the Malay race, the South American aborigines.

1. THE ARAUCANIANS.

These natives live in the beautiful country, named after them Araucania, through which we now will take a stroll. As the author lived a number of years in Araucania, he is glad to give a brief description of this country. *Araucania* was formerly that extensive, delightful, and rich territory which is limited on the north by the river Biobio, on the south by the Valdivia, on the east by the Andes mountains, and on the west by the Pacific ocean. At present it is divided into five Chilean provinces. The Biobio which like all rivers of Chile, has its source in the Andes, receives in its northwesterly course many tributaries, and empties into the Pacific, near the city of Concepcion. It is Chile's largest river. The river Tolten is the outlet of lake Villa Rica which lies at the foot of the volcano, bearing the same name. A coast range extends through the



PRIMEVAL CHILE

western part of Araucania, is rugged, and rises to a considerable height. In one of the cultivated valleys of this range was our first stopping place in Chile. The road over the range which leads in many windings up on the steep slope, always fatigued the travelers. But having climbed the rugged summit, a landscape lay open before our eyes that made us forget all our hardships. Facing towards the east we looked over a very extensive forest of semitropical trees in their youthful verdure. Beyond it our views roamed over a plain that extends at least seventy miles eastward, is traversed by many streams and broken up by hills and elevations. This plain is in the far east limited by the heaven aspiring Andes whose snow-clad summits seemed to be lost in the gray, cloudy sky. They drew the eastern limits of our vision. At the foot of the Andes are numerous lakes that give rise to the many streams.

Araucania is not only beautiful, but rich in natural resources also. The mountains are richly wooded with slender trees rising to a height of 150 feet. Capriciously creeping plants encircle trunks and branches and decorate even the leafy crown with handsome flowers. High on top of the tallest trees one sees bell-shaped flowers in blossom. From one forest tree thus decorated the creeping plants will grow downward, strike roots in the ground, creep along the earth to another tree, wind up on it too, to embellish it with flowers. They will repeat these capricious windings till they have united a number of trees one with another. Beneath this lofty bower of flowers and branches made by nature's skill, the traveler beholds the marvelous formations God's wisdom and bounty have exhibited wherever his eyes may turn. The forests are rich in all kinds of building timber. However, low thorny bushes grown together cover the woodlands at places so densely that the traveler has to open a path with a hatchet. In the midst of the forest and especially on the banks of rivers and creeks are pastures which are in summer covered with an

excellent kind of grass of such a height that the sheep pasturing there are hidden in it. In spring the grassy soil produces delicious berries of various kinds. Grains, pulse plants, and vegetables are raised in abundance on cultivated lands.

Araucania is also rich in animal life. Of the domestic animals the horse is least to be dispensed with; for riding is a universal custom. But alas! the noble animal has irreconcilable enemies, the lions. These beasts, which are found in large numbers in mountainous regions, lie in wait for the horses and pursue them in deadly careers. The lion lying in wait will suddenly jump upon the horse, seizing him by an ear. A desperate fight now is on and usually ends in the defeat of the horse, falling to the ground. Seldom he is so fortunate as to escape and even then he leaves his ear to the enemy. The Chilean lion, called *yaguar*, is inferior to the African in noble bearing and generosity; he is rather a tiger-cat. The Araucanians are skillful in hunting the *yaguar*. Customarily they hit the animal with the *laqui*, a rope with two or three balls of silver or another heavy metal fastened to one end. Have they succeeded to throw the *yaguar* to the ground, they jump upon him to kill him. Often they set wooden traps in the mountains and tie lambs on them. At the bleating of the lamb the lion sneaks near to get a prey, makes a big jump and is always caught by the trap, remaining a close prisoner. Besides the *yaguar* the mountains are frequented by guanacos, which formerly supplied the Araucanians with wool, and by a species of deer two and a half feet in height, very gracefully built and of a dark-yellow color. Lastly there are foxes and mountain cats, and the amphibious *huillines* which live on fishes. The *huillines* are two and a half feet long, from five to six inches high, and six inches broad. Their furs are exported to Europe in large quantities and are highly valued.

Among the birds of Araucania the largest is the condor; he is the king of the Andes. When the mountains are covered with snow or when a storm is about to break loose, he swoops

down upon the plains to seize a sheep or a kid for his sustenance. The flamingo is noteworthy for its red-colored wings and beautiful shape. The swan, the duck, and the heron are found in the vicinities of all the rivers. Some feathered inhabitants of the air are robbers and at times become a real plague to the husbandmen; to wit, wild pigeons which come in flocks so numerous that they darken the sky, and parrots. The pigeons light upon the fields of grain and destroy the seeds, while the parrots settle upon the groves of wild appletrees to feast upon the fruit from which the Araucanians prepare the favorite drink chicha. They pluck the apples from the trees, part them carefully, take the kernels for themselves, and throw the fleshy parts generously to the ground. The natives gather the pieces and make their drink from them.

Araucania's climate is the best in all Chile; it compares favorably with that of southern California. After the unpleasant season of the winter rains a long splendid summer follows. The summer evenings are most delightful. In the mild and wholesome climate all species of plants and grains of temperate and semitropical zones grow abundantly. Men and animals grow strong. Contagious diseases are not at home in Araucania; only smallpox become prevalent at times, because vaccination has not yet been introduced everywhere. *The Araucanians* ordinarily are a robust people and of rather medium stature. The members of the body are well proportioned, extraordinarily muscular, and strong. The feet are small and flat. The skin is rather rough and of light-brown color; the hair is black, thick, and long. The face, almost round and without a beard, has a somewhat flat nose, small and intelligently looking eyes, and a small mouth which is supplied with an excellent set of white teeth. The females are well built, corpulent, and of a low stature. Both sexes generally attain a very old age, not a few exceeding one hun-



ARAUCANIAN AT 95 AND WIFE

dred years. Teeth, sight, and hair retain normal conditions until old age.

The Araucanian is ignorant indeed, but has, nevertheless, very good qualities. As he is courageous and daring, he never submits to an enemy, but rather defends his native soil step by step against any strangers who may dare to invade it. His home is dearer to him than anything else in this world; he loves it as he loves his independence and is always ready to defend it, cost it what it may. Jealous of his honor and of the honor of his wife or his wives, he is at every moment ready to fight on account of a word that may, though only indirectly, offend them or himself. Being extremely conscientious in reference to agreements made, he looks after his creditor on the day agreed upon to settle with him. Since he is careful, he does not commence any undertaking without previously considering matters in detail. In his generosity he gladly assists the needy; in his gratefulness he returns benevolence for benevolence. Laying great importance upon hospitality, he never leaves a stranger standing at his door, but invites him to enter. Gifted with an extraordinary strength of memory, he never forgets a kindness shown him nor an offense given him. Patiently and with submission he suffers all kinds of difficulties and hardships. And finally, to this attractive portrait of Araucania's native we must add as finishing touch the noble virtue of chastity. Chaste by nature and by habit, he observes social purity in a higher degree than is even found in many civilized nations. Adultery has no place in Araucania; but should this base crime ever disturb domestic peace, public conscience demands punishment, and capital punishment follows. This trait of character which the Araucanians have kept pure, we have already recognized as a mark of distinction between the aborigines and the Asiatic and African inhabitants of South America. Paul Treutler, who traveled in Araucania and is a Catholic, writes that there is a higher degree of moral purity in the interior than at the limits, because

in touch with the Chileans they accepted their passions. Mr. Treutler might have stated that the Araucanians in their native estate live purer lives than the Catholic Chilenos generally observe. — It must, however, also be stated that polygamy has become a custom among the Araucanians. Each man has two, three, four or even as many as twelve wives; as many as his rank among his people or his personal property will allow him to have. In addition to this error two other principal defects mar the Araucanian's character: he is fond of intoxicating drinks and is lazy.

Sad, very sad is *the condition of the Araucanian women*. Entirely controlled by the will of the parents, the girl spends the years of her youth in the occupations of the house without receiving permission to enjoy herself with her youthful companions or to spend some time in such plays as children need and love. During her young womanhood she continues to live in the same submissive condition. The custom of her people does not concede her the right to select the companion of her life by her own choice. The father makes the selection or rather sells his daughter to a man for a number of animals, customarily without the slightest knowledge on her part. As a rule the Araucanian women are friendly and submissive and show good judgment in the domestic occupations and the training of their children.

The clothing of the Araucanians is plain. The women formerly wove four-cornered pieces of cloth from the wool of the guanacos; now they make them from sheep's wool. Many men fold this cloth around their legs, imitating breeches. Since ages they wear the characteristic poncho. This also is a four-cornered piece of woolen cloth with an oblong hole in the center which allows the head to stick through and, hanging down from the shoulders, covers the entire upper part of the body. As the Spaniards found the poncho very serviceable, they introduced it. In our days it is fabricated by Chilenos in various qualities and, being exceedingly comfortable espe-

cially on horseback, the poncho has become a national apparel of Chile. The poncho is also found among the inhabitants of the South Pacific islands, the Polynesians. Will not the Araucanians have brought it hither? As adornment the Araucanian uses a red cloth to tie up his hair, and he wears silver spurs which he fastens around his bare limbs and which he values higher than anything that may be offered him.

The women wear pieces of woolen cloth which they fasten around the waist and the shoulders so as to cover the whole body, only leaving the arms free for action. The thick, braided hair the women wind around the head leaving the ends of the braids project behind the ears. When they go out on a walk or journey, they throw a light cloth over their heads, which they fasten upon the breast with a silver pin whose head is as large as an apple of medium size. The ornaments of the females are exclusively made of silver and are really neat. They adorn the hair with strings of pearls, the neck with long chains hanging down over the breast, the arms with bracelets, and the ears with silver plates about three inches square which naturally enlarge the earlaps unbecomingly.

In *art and science* the Araucanians are lacking, with exceptions, even the elementary notions. The women know how to spin and to weave cloth, and how to make pots and jars of clay. The men have some practical ideas on seasons and times. They are able to calculate the exact duration of the year by determining both solstices. Because they live on the southern hemisphere, they set the summer solstice on December 22nd and the winter solstice on June 22nd. They also divide the year into twelve months and into 365 days; but they allow only 30 days to each month and add the remaining five days to the last month. "Cujen" is the Araucanian name for moon and for month, too. The name of each particular month is taken from the rural products, the prevailing weather or from the occupation of the particular season; as follows, —

January,	Avun-cujen,	fruit month ;
February,	Cogi-cujen,	harvest month ;
March,	Glor-cujen,	corn month ;
April,	Rimu-cujen,	rimu (a flower) month ;
May,	Inan rimu-cujen,	second rimu month ;
June,	Thor-cujen,	rainy month ;
July,	Inan thor-cujen,	second rainy month ;
August,	Huin-cujen,	disagreeable month ;
September,	Pillel-cujen,	deceiving month ;
October,	Hucul-cujen,	month of new purchases ;
November,	Inan hucul-cujen,	second month of new purchases ;
December,	Huevun-cujen,	month of new fruits.

The Araucanian language is beautiful; it is expressive, poetic, and strictly grammatical. The entire language is expressed in strict grammatical forms and can be learned by clear logical rules. The alphabet consists of the letters of the Latin language with two exceptions; to wit, it lacks the Latin x and has the sound of tr which the Latin has not. The use of compound words is very general. And there are only very few simple words which could not serve as roots to form other words and which could not become infinitives of verbs, simply by affixing the letter "n." In no part of speech one can find deviations from general rules which are so common in the European languages. Nouns and verbs have, like the Greek, the three numbers singular, plural, and dual. The conjugation of the verb requires neither pronoun nor participle. Besides the common six tenses of the English, it is conjugated in a second present and in two mixed tenses, in all in nine tenses. The language has, for each of the nine tenses, a special infinitive and a special participle and, therefore, peculiarities that afford it a diversity of expressions, unknown to us. The nine tenses are conjugated in the indicative, the conjunctive, and the imperative moods, and in the active and passive voices. The noun has the six cases of the Latin and, as stated, the three numbers of the Greek.

To develop such a language, a mental ability was necessary that was able to create corresponding notions and to produce adequate forms of expressions. The Araucanians of our time have not such an ability and, consequently, have not produced their rich language. Of this fact one is readily convinced who visits their country, investigates their intellectual ability, and observes their customs and ways; he is surprised at the stupid conditions they live in. Their beautiful language must be a product of by-gone ages, of times when their fore-fathers led higher intellectual lives. The Araucanians must have brought this language down through the generations as a remnant of a national prosperity, as an inheritance of literary productiveness of former times. This opinion is corroborated by the investigations of Mr. Treutler who traveled extensively among the Picuntos, an Araucanian tribe. He writes: "They have a large number of expressions and words in their language, that designate abstract ideas and notions which they do not understand any more and of which they make use only in peculiar circumstances and at certain occasions. That language is the result of lucky intelligent connections of ideas, which evidently can not be attributed to the uncivilized." This being true, the conclusion must be accepted, *that the Araucanians were formerly more intelligent than at present and that they deteriorated.* They must be members of a people or of a race that once had a cultured language, which was their national treasure. Mr. Ellis, also traveling in Araucania, found there numerous words of the inhabitants of New Zealand who speak the Malay language. And the three grammatical numbers, singular, dual, and plural, are, according to Dr. Ebrard, likewise found in the languages of the East India islands, of New Zealand, and of the Philippine islands.

Thus there is a relation between the Araucanian language and the language of Malaysia. Let it be remembered that the Malay race spread over all the islands of the Pacific lying south of the equator. In their struggle towards the east dur-

ing a long course of time, they reached the Easter islands, which lie some 600 geographical miles from Chile's coast. The languages which these far and widely scattered islanders spoke, are a union, a family of languages, called the Malay-Polynesian group. Of this group the language spoken on the Sunda or East India islands experienced most development and is there the popular and commercial language. Java's language of literature and poetry is called Kawi. The Kawi literature flourished in the centuries after Christ and found a wide circulation over the southern Pacific islands by the seafaring Malays. It must have been brought to Araucania; for only thus we obtain an understanding of the poetic and strictly grammatical language of the Araucanians. Its development Mr. Treutler could not attribute to barbarians; and we have declared it to be a remnant of culture of by-gone ages. This we consider a further proof for the Malay origin of the Araucanians.

Araucania's language then affords another interesting illustration for the world-wide historic fact that a people left to itself goes to ruin. Intelligence weakens; ideas and ideals dwindle away; men grow wild. The evolution theory of a normal development of man by virtue of natural forces, finds neither support in Araucania nor in any other part of Primitive South America. They did not develop from the low condition of animal-like men to reasoning and higher intelligence; but they fell from the spheres of mental activity and literary prosperity into poverty of thought, into stupidity and barbarism.

Among a people unacquainted with industrial pursuits and skillful works, one looks in vain for somewhat developed *religious ideas*. For where there is a religious system, there also is religious service. And where there is religious service, there also is art, even if only the very beginning. But art erects buildings and embellishes them according to its own ability. Thus religion is a source of art and progress.

With the stupid and unskilled Araucanians religious thoughts are of a very rudimentary character; neither did they build any temples, nor erect altars. They acknowledged a divine creator and preserver of the universe. The supreme being they designate with the name Pillan, i. e. spirit. The name was taken from the Old Peruvian word "villa" which means to speak. It appears that the Araucanians originally called the creator of the world Guen-Cubu and that, with the introduction of Pillan, Guen-Cubu was degraded to the position and office of an evil spirit. For he is now the spirit of evil, the originator of all misfortune that may befall men. Moilen (or Meulen) is a good god and is friendly to men. Thalclave is god of thunder, Eponemon god of war. The Araucanians believe, that there is an exalted place in or above the clouds where the good gods dwell. At the same time they claim that almighty Pillan has his dwelling place in the principal volcano of their country, called Villa Rica, whose eruptions and rumblings they evidently attribute to his indwelling. To this god in the volcano they show high regard at all occasions. The gods, they say, as a rule care but little for men; at times, however, they are said to communicate with them by means of certain genii that serve the gods as their messengers. Guen-Cubu appears now and then in the visible form of a wild animal, and it means an early death to him who has such an appearance. The Araucanians believe also in the immortality of the soul, in eternal reward of the good and everlasting punishment of the wicked. The eternal homes of the souls are not with the gods; the future life rather begins beyond a certain mysterious mountain which they believe to lie in the midst of the Pacific Ocean. Thither the souls go after death to rest from the toils of this life. May this singular belief not have originated in a homesickness of the ancestors, may it not have germinated in the recollections of homes or of a native land they had left in the western sea and in the ardent desire to return to that homeland once again? Desire is called the

father of thought, but it is still oftener a father of hope and belief. The Araucanians' belief in the homes of the souls, points to the land of their origin.

They have neither priests, nor temples, nor idols. Their religious service consists mainly in sacrificing animals in the open air, but is not polluted by human sacrifices. By offering animals they hope to appease the anger of the gods whom they believe to be angry, when a disease or another misfortune befalls them. They also offer cider and whiskey for libation. Before drinking of these liquors in common life or at festive occasions, they dip a few fingers into them and fling some drops in the direction of volcano Villa Rica to consecrate the liquor to almighty Pillan.

It is noteworthy what Dr. Ebrard reports concerning the Araucanian tradition of the deluge. According to the same "a flood covered the whole earth. A few men saved themselves on a mountain, which had three peaks, was swimming on the water, and was called 'Lightning.' The recollection that those men saved themselves on a swimming mountain was confounded with the recollection of the mountain on which the swimming object landed. The three peaks of the mountain were confounded with the three men who sat on it. The number three repeats itself in the most traditions of the deluge, for it is the number of the sons of the flood hero."

More firmly than in their gods, the Araucanians put trust in their medicine men and sorcerers. They question them very often and obey them unconditionally; although those men are void of all knowledge pertaining to medicine and are but mere frauds.

Having made the acquaintance of Araucania and her people in a general sense, we shall gather from Mr. Treutler's travels such features of their actual life as will serve our purpose, leaving out many valuable informations. We shall join a few customs and practices to degradation and barbarism, so as to draw a life-picture of these South American aborigines.

DWELLINGS AND SALUTATIONS.

Treutler's expedition, carrying many presents for the natives, first arrived at the house of chief Martin. As soon as the chief comprehended that Mr. Treutler intended to pay him a visit, he sent some of his sons to assist in forwarding his baggage, while he himself went to the door of his house to greet him and his companions. He saluted them with the customary, yet hearty Araucanian greeting: "Marri-Marri," and then invited them to come in. The exterior of the house had the shape of a chapel. It was at least 120 feet long and half as wide. Like all Araucanian houses it was erected of reeds and clay, thatched, and had only one door that admitted men and animals without distinction. The interior was separated into various departments. Through the middle of the house led a kind of hall 30 feet wide, which, however, was separated into three sections used by the wives of the chief. In each section a fire was burning, a fire for each wife. From this custom of keeping a fire burning for each wife, the disgusting habit of asking how many fires do you keep burning has originated, when one wants to know how many wives the other man may have. This heartless habit to speak of a wife as of a thing, shows the cold relation which polygamy is bringing about. On both sides of the three sections were rooms which were partitioned off by thin reed walls and served as dormitories for the family. The upper part of the house was a loft, where the harvest was stored up.

When the visitors entered the women and their children were with crossed legs sitting on guanaco skins near the fires. The guests being invited to be seated, took places on the ground in the circle around a fire, when the interpreter of the expedition began the customary formalities of salutation. These are a real ceremony that constitutes an essential part of a visit and requires time. More than half an hour the people successively repeated the compliments. The clever salut-

ing conversation sounded to the German visitor like a quickly spoken gibberish. It began with a singsong drawled out in vehement increases and decreases of voices and then continued in crescendo till it became a capricious jargon. The saluting formalities having ended, a lamb was brought, tied to a post, and butchered. They then put salt and red pepper in the bleeding throat, had the seasoned blood run into a vessel, poured it in small wooden plates, and served it while still warm to all who were present. Though the drink of blood was disgusting to Mr. Treutler, yet for the sake of his travels and because it was the sign of friendship between himself and the natives, he did not venture to refuse. With distorted features he emptied the wooden plate in company with his uncivilized friends. Next the mutton was roasted on fire in the open air and served to the guests. These found the meat so tasteful that they thought the best landlords of London or Paris would have envied them for it. Friendship being established, Mr. Treutler presented the chief and his wives with red handkerchiefs, tobacco, and glass pearls. Martin highly pleased with the visit, invited his friends on that delightful afternoon to take a walk through his fields. The guests found them as well cultivated as could be expected of people who do not know anything about science and art. On the fields grew grain, corn, potatoes, beans, and the like, and they produced sufficient feed for the numerous herds of cattle and sheep, owned by the chief. Mr. Treutler met the father of the already sixty years old host, too. The good old Araucanian had then reached an age of hundred and ten years; at that high age he enjoyed the good use of his eyes, ears, and teeth, etc., and was able to express himself readily in Spanish.

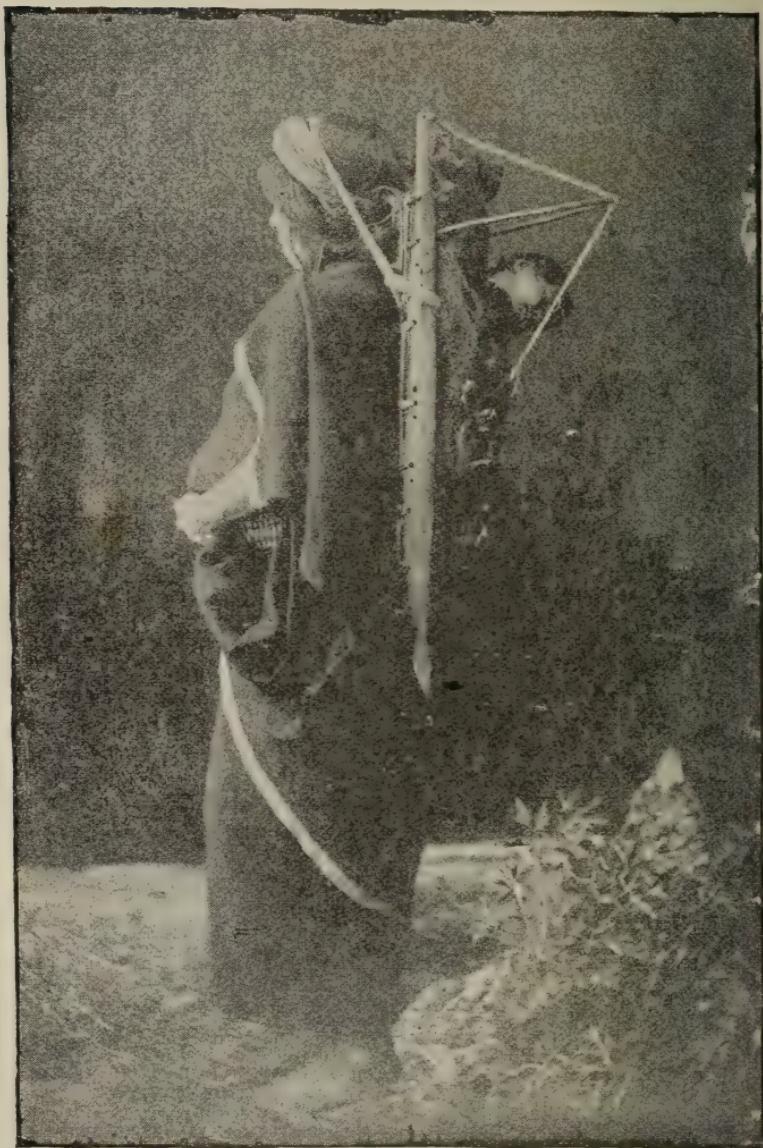
At the departure of the expedition, chief Martin had the baggage loaded on his own mules, supplied the travelers with riding horses, and ordered his son to accompany them to the cacique and to introduce them to him. By so doing he observed the praiseworthy custom generally practiced by his peo-

ple, not to part from any friend without having him accompanied by one or two mocetones to the next village or ranch.

MANNER OF RAISING CHILDREN.

When after a weary journey and all drenched with rain Mr. Treutler and his companions arrived at the town of Nimpue, an Araucanian received them kindly into his house. Here they were resting from their hardships and were putting their wet clothes to the fire to dry, when they heard the crying of a babe to which the wife just then had given birth. To their very great astonishment they saw the mother leave the house immediately with the babe in her arms. When they then pointed out to their host the danger to which his wife was exposing herself, he laughingly said that his country women did not experience any mishap by going on that way; his wife was only doing what all Araucanian women did in like circumstances; she had simply gone to a river nearby to bathe herself and the child and would soon return in good health and strength. And really! After a little while the woman returned with the newcomer and took up the housework as though nothing unusual had happened.

Neither the comforts nor the enervations of civilized life are known in Araucania. The little ones are early accustomed to a hard, rough life. They are neither wrapped up in warm, soft, swaddling cloths and bedded in pillows, nor are they clad in neat dresses and odd hoods. They are put neither in rocking cradles nor in rolling wagons. Bed and cradle of the Araucanian baby is a board three feet long and one foot wide. It has a strap at one end for the purpose of carrying or suspending it. The little one wrapped up in woolen blankets or furs, is fastened to this board. Fastened to a board! Hard lot! Discouraging beginning! Yes, indeed, I am in favor of the human way of raising our little ones, of the way that makes them laugh cheerily and smile hopefully. Is the baby of the Araucanian mother to sleep, she lays it with the board



MOTHER WITH BABY

on the ground. Does it cry, she hangs the board with the baby on a post or on the branch of a tree and swings it to and fro. Does she want to nurse the baby, she lays it to the breast with the board. When she is busy with her domestic work, she places the board to the wall in a half upright position and pursues her work with great contentment. In case she goes out she hangs the board with the baby on her back, suspended by the strap around her forehead. In the case of twins she lets one dangle down in front and the other behind. Thus loaded with a pair of children Araucanian women are seen riding on horseback at full speed.

We have already stated that the lot of the Araucanian females is an unfortunate one. As babies they are on the hard, stiff board; in their youth they are under the unreasonable authority of the father; as wives they are the slaves of labor and toil. Early in life the girl is obliged to take part in the labors of the house and the field and to carry heavy loads on her head or on the back suspended by a strap around the forehead. They do not enjoy the blessings of instruction or the benefits of associating with playmates. The father disposes of his grown up daughter for a number of domestic animals; henceforth she is the real supporter of the household. Thus she drags herself through a dreary life, a life not yet cheered by Christianity.

ORACLE AND EXECUTION.

The Araucanians, especially the women, are very clever in looking for poisonous plants and in extracting the malignant liquid. The females have the poison constantly in their possession as a fatal means to avenge an offense inflicted on them, or to comply with an oath they have sworn. There is, namely, among their ornaments a necklace composed of leaden parts resembling thimbles. In these small receptacles they keep the deadly poison; the unarmed woman supplies herself with a very effective means of revenge and applies it treacherously

under the pretense of polite kindness. She simply pours the contents of a receptacle into a cup of water or cider, offers it to the one marked by her, and the hideous intention is carried into effect.—The Araucanians do not know what sicknesses are, or rather do not consider diseases as such. If any one dies, nor from the consequences of a fight or from old age, they believe he was poisoned or the devil killed him. If any one is believed to have been poisoned, they call on the oracle to announce the perpetrator of the crime. Is any one believed to be possessed by the devil, the Machi has to drive the devil out.

The principal oracle is in the territory of the Boroan tribe, that lives north of the river Tolten. This tribe is a singular phenomenon, for it distinguishes itself characteristically from the other Araucanians. The Boroans are rather slender, of white complexion, have nice facial expressions, blond hair, flat noses, and large blue eyes. They are likely degenerated Europeans. The most trustworthy opinion concerning them is that they are descendants of Hollanders who were shipwrecked long ago on the neighboring rockbound coast. At present they live in a wild state and are taken for an Araucanian tribe. — To their sorcerer, in cases of poisoning, the Araucanians go from far and wide to have him announce the criminal. Having received many presents of horses, cattle, silver ornaments, and other gifts which they offer him, he makes them tell him the story of the crime in detail and then asks for names, names of the friends and enemies of the deceased and of all other persons with whom he may have had intercourse in life. Then acting as though he consulted heaven, he utters false deceiving invocations and strange disconnected clamors, commits himself to a process of ridiculous writhings and twistings and to attacks of madness. In this confused state of mind he names one or two persons with whom the poisoned person had some relation in life. This is the final decision and taken for the infallible judgment of heaven. Any individual thus stigma-

tized is the victim of execution, which is regularly carried into effect by burning to death.

When the Boroanese diviner once had declared a certain young girl to be the one who had poisoned a young chief and when she was under the sentence to be burned alive, the chief of the district sent an invitation to the missionary of Imperial to be present at the execution in order that he might convince himself of the justice and propriety of their way of proceeding. This invitation was given, because the Chilenos had complained about the Araucanian way of execution. The missionary excused himself and sent a military officer in his stead, who was an eyewitness and reported as follows:

"On the day appointed for the execution more than five hundred natives had come together, some sitting on the ground with crossed legs and others lying stretched out. Some time having transpired a loud voice was heard. It was the voice of the chief who ordered all that were present to form a circle in whose midst the shocking execution was to take place. When the circle was formed the chief and some others took their places in the center, and he addressed the people in the following words: 'As the diviner (of the Boroans) discovered the perpetratrix of the crime which caused the death of the young man and as the guilty is present, I consider it appropriate to have her come before me for the purpose of questioning her.' Thereupon he called a girl of sixteen years and asked her whether she was certain that she had poisoned the son of the cacique. 'Yes,' she answered with firmness. 'Did you know that you would forfeit your own life by committing such a crime?' 'I knew that,' she responded with equal decision and added that her mother had urged her to commit the deed. The mother also was called. She, however, knew by means of shrewdness and surprising unconcern how to make her judges believe that she was innocent. So they dismissed her.

After this brief questioning they made the preparation for the execution. In the midst of the circle they erected two

posts in whose upper ends were openings. Then they put fire to piles of combustibles between the posts, undressed the girl, tied her feet and hands to a beam, lifted it up with the girl hanging down, and let the ends of the beam slide into the openings of the posts. Whilst now the flames strike the girl and her flesh is being roasted, those devils in human forms jump, dance, and frolic, they drink, laugh, and howl. After a while they push the burning pieces of wood aside. Is it to give the girl release from her sufferings, is it for the devilish intent of prolonging her tortures? But soon they apply the fire anew and apply it with greater intensity. The strength of the girl is vanishing gradually; she finally breathes her last; charred remains only were left. And those nearest her had neither heard sighs nor murmurings, had neither noticed expressions of pain nor utterances of distress. Oh, vigorous race that thus despiseth torture and death!

"The horrifying tragedy had come to a close, many natives had commenced to retire, when the mother of the victim forced her way through the crowd. Her whole body trembling, her clothes torn, her face pale, her mouth foaming, so she approached the inhuman judge. With defying gestures, with a suppressed trembling voice, in disconnected stuttering expressions, she made these words ring into his ears: 'Listen! I am guilty . . . it was I who prepared the poison . . . the daughter of my womb has suffered innocently . . . I urged her to commit the crime, while she was not aware of what she was doing . . . you wrested her from me . . . you burned her to ashes . . . you will incur an equal fate in life!' While the chief was still listening, he called the scattering crowd back to pass sentence over the confession of the unfortunate mother. They returned in a great hurry. It seemed they were not yet satisfied, their passions for torture had rather been excited. The mother was likewise condemned to be burned. The details of the first tragedy were repeated and the crowd celebrated it with renewed savage howlings. When the

barbaric spectacle had terminated the chief addressed the officer in these words: 'Will you tell your people that the innocent are not always sentenced here and that we know how to execute justice better than they think.' "

A PUBLIC FESTIVAL AND A LANDSCAPE.

It was a delightful summer day in December when Mr. Treutler's expedition arrived at the large lake Calafquen, lying near the volcano Villa Rica. On the southern shore of the lake is a charming plain, on which the native village Trailafquen lies, which counts but about one hundred inhabitants. The chief of the town, called Curinyano, a man advanced in years, of high, slender stature and a pleasing expression of face, greeted them heartily. After the customary salutations and the partaking of the signs of friendship, the presenting of gifts followed. In the evening a large number of natives came to salute the visitor and to persuade him of their friendly intentions. Mr. Treutler in turn presented them with handkerchiefs, cigarettes etc. When all were in a cheerful mood they conversed with great animation, making Mr. Treutler important communications. He told them of the manners and customs of civilized people. When they had retired the chief told him that he would invite the whole vicinity in the morning, so that he might introduce him to all the people as his good friend.

The following morning dawned beautifully. The sky was dressed in purple blue; nature appeared in gala. Festive silence lay peacefully upon village and lake, upon forests and fields, upon mountains and plains. The morning sun sent its pure rays primarily to play upon the snowy tops of the nearby Andes, covering them with light and glory, and then sent them down to the lower levels to chase the dew from bushes and grasses and flowers. The vapors rose from the earth and, gathering into foggy clouds, encircled forests and mountain heights and then floated away with the soft breezes of the

morning. Now, a world of semitropical vegetation unfolded its southern foliage, its changing beauty of colors, and covered valleys and plains and mountain sides as far as the eye could reach. The melodious voices of singing birds made music everywhere and even the beauteous plumage of screaming birds contributed their part to make that morning festive. Yea, nature presenting a scene most gorgeous to behold, incited the visitor to the highest pitch of admiration. How wonderful are the works of our God! But alas! that enchanting scene of nature, filling the human soul with joy and delight in the morning, had its counterpart in the dismal scenes of the evening, when human beings saddened the heart of our German friend. Schiller's words:

"The world is perfect everywhere,

Whither man does not come with his despair"

may be truly applied to Araucania's plains. Curinyano had that morning ordered one of his mocetones to climb a really tall tree near his house, to summon the people with his pifulca. As they whistle on this instrument only when the inhabitants are called to arms, the people of Trailafquen believed an enemy to be in the neighborhood. Without delay one hundred and fifty robust lads, well mounted, appeared with their enormous lances to put themselves at the disposition of their cacique. These natives appeared more savage to Mr. Treutler than any he had seen so far. The upper parts of their bodies as far down as the hips were naked and their faces painted in very surprising manners. Some had both cheeks painted dark-red, others one cheek red and the other blue, still others had painted only one cheek and the nose. Many had bedaubed one side of the face only and almost all had drawn black circles around the eyes. As they had been called not to fight an enemy, but rather to enter into friendly relations with Mr. Treutler and his associates, they formed, as usually when they gather, a circle near the house to settle some pending questions. The cacique, Mr. Treutler, and his interpreter took places in the center.

When the ceremonies of greeting were gone through, Mr. Treutler offered to the chiefs that were present whiskey, handkerchiefs, and tobacco, and to the common people cigarettes. To insure the Chilean government of their friendly intentions, they asked Sr. Mera, a Chilean officer of the expedition, to consider himself a judge in their judicial proceedings; they would recognize his judgments as conclusive. When the officer refused to act as judge, Curinyano himself insisted upon his accepting the offer as an evidence of trust and friendship. Then Officer Mera consented and spent about one hour in listening to the complaints of the people and in passing judgments. They were mainly accusations which women brought against their husbands for maltreatments. The women wanted to get legal rights to leave them. When the trials had ended the people gave expression to their satisfaction by raising a general shout of approbation.

Mr. Treutler had the intention of visiting the ruins of the town of Villa Rica lying at the foot of the volcano. At this place the Spaniards had in former times found much gold and the forefathers of these Araucanians had destroyed the town. On account of the blood shed there they had cursed the place, wherefore no Araucanians ventured to go into that vicinity. Still more. Because the Spaniards had brought great calamities over their people through greed after gold, they had abandoned the use of all golden ornaments and had accepted the use of articles made of silver. Indeed, instead of golden, we find, at the present time, only silver ornaments in use throughout Araucania. — When Mr. Treutler's intention to visit the renowned mines of Villa Rica became known, a general murmur was started which grew more and more noisy and quarrelsome and accepted a dangerous aspect; for they became suspicious of Treutler's expedition, thinking that he pursued the object of spying out their country, so the Christians might conquer it. Through his interpreter, however, he succeeded to dispel the suspicion of hostile intentions. When they under-

stood that the expeditionists only intended to look up the ancient treasures forsaken by the Spaniards, they contended themselves and gave expression to their feelings by raising an infernal noise. In this Treutler and his men joined with a harrowing accompaniment of their instruments and with a report of their rifles. As the crowd was little or not at all familiar with firearms, the shooting caused a wild excitement. Some seemed to be rather dead than alive, not being able to understand what had happened, and turned their eyes with terrified looks hither and thither. Some kept standing in their positions as if grown tight, while others began to touch their bodies, apparently to find out whether they had been hurt. Still others had sufficient courage to approach and to examine the rifles with some carefulness. The complicated construction they declared to be witchcraft. Only then their consternation left them completely when the instruments began to play anew. The music delighted them exceedingly, although the tunes were very discordant and offensive to civilized ears. This and a barrel of whiskey which Mr. Treutler had placed in the midst of the circle, now brought their good humor and delight to the highest pitch. They circled closely around him to applaud him for the surprise he had brought about and expressed the supposition that he very likely had ordered those rifles to be fired for the purpose of scaring the devil away and of creating a good understanding and mutual confidence among all present. Then they surrounded the whiskey barrel, dipped their fingers in and spattered some drops in the direction of Villa Rica to dedicate the liquor to great Pillan, whereupon the drinking began which was carried on all afternoon. However, the most interesting part of the revelry was about to commence, when the sun had set in the west and the evening was ushering in from the east. For from the woods surrounding the place a large number of females, to the great surprise of the crowd, suddenly sallied forth and with laughing faces surrounded the men's circle, playing uncivilized pieces on



CACIQUE DAUGHTERS

drums, pipes, and other barbaric instruments. They were dressed phantastically and around their eyes they had painted blue circles from which lines radiated in all directions. With this increase the jolly revelry gained gigantic proportions. Now and then one could see single natives still arrive, running about the circle towards the left and the right and greeting their acquaintances man for man singly, approaching every other one with a new word.

Meanwhile night had come on. The thousand-fold voices of nature had grown silent. The enchanting scene of the morning had undergone a change, had turned pale, and darkness now enveloped it in black. By and by the moon's pale face rose above the Cordilleras, poured its silvery light over the landscape, and gigantic shadows were drawn behind the tall trees. In the midst of this nightly splendor the people continued to enact scenes of saddening aspects; for the revelry went on with undiminishing liveliness and excitement. Here fifty to sixty natives were sitting around a big fire, preparing Araucanian delicacies—roasts of mutton, of beef or pork; even a butchered colt should do honor to the occasion. There the ablest riders tried the least controllable, nevertheless smart horses. Everywhere the cider-jugs and whiskey horns made the rounds with the greatest rapidity. And those people intoxicated by drink, danced, they jumped, they sang and howled, they made a frightful racket in company with the unbearable sounds of the drums and fifes. But their dancing and jumping consisted in vehement turnings, in strange windings, in convulsive writhings. There was no harmony in their singing; it was howling and likened the howling of wild animals rather than that of the human voice. They uttered sounds as only barbarians can utter them. Those adventurous figures, half naked, the faces painted with various colors and reddened with drinks, presented to our German friend a new original picture of life, such as solely aborigines can paint, a picture which in a religious heart awakens feelings of sadness and deepest sym-

pathy. When he had gazed at this scene in the red glare of the fire and in the pale moonlight to his satisfaction and had repeatedly turned his attention to the wild cries and screams, he asked himself whether he still was in his sound senses or whether a troublesome nightmare had befallen him, whether he was among human beings or incarnate devils. What a deep degradation these Araucanians presented! But even that dismal reality had an optimistic aspect. In all the noisy tumult of the scuffling men and the bustling women there occurred no quarrel, no fight, no exchange of words one with the other, even no discord of feelings. In their good understanding and humor the barbarians had an enviable advantage. Among civilized people there would, at similar occasions, have happened something to disturb the general harmony.

PREPARATIONS FOR A CAMPAIGN TO ARGENTINA.

At the festival just described a number of Indians from the Argentine pampas, called Pehuenches, were present. They associated brotherly with the Araucanians, standing in friendly relations with them. This visit which will have been one of many, points towards an intimate relation between the two peoples, living west and east of the Andes. The fact that there existed a close friendship between the Chilean Araucanians and the Argentine Pehuenches, a friendship doubtless based upon tribal relations, this fast is proved by a military campaign which various Araucanian tribes undertook to the far east.

On the Atlantic coast south of Buenos Aires chief Yenquitrú had been killed in a raid he had made in the territory of the white settlers. To avenge his death, the pampas Indians made preparations far and wide; the Argentine fort Carmen was to be stormed. The Araucanians had been asked to assist and were eagerly preparing for that campaign when Mr. Treutler visited them. They were fabricating enormous lances and making laquis by rolling round stones in the one end

of long, warmed leather straps, which while getting cold drew tightly together. The women dried beef, prepared flour and other necessaries for the long march across the continent. They also made preparations for the case of defeat, by mixing poisons and narcotics which their men and sons should take against their own lives if defeated, to escape the revenge of the victor.

While these military preparations were going on an incident occurred which shows how the Araucanians trace daily happenings to the interventions of their gods. Namely, the campaign horse of chief Lumunao took sick. As he and all the inhabitants of his district viewed therein a fatal omen, he resolved that none of his subjects take part in the pending campaign; for Pillan did not show himself favorable to the undertaking, as shown in the sickness of his horse.

A few days later a great agitation could be seen in the village of Pitrufquen. Towards noon armed natives came and went everywhere, some on horseback, others on foot. It was the day of mobilization. Wives parted from their husbands, mothers from their sons, sisters from brothers, and all as if they would never see them again. There was much weeping and sobbing, much cordiality and sincerity, there were many embracings and Marri-Marris. More than 2000 warriors were under arms. In the evening the march began to the distant Atlantic coast.

2. INDIANS OF THE PAMPAS.

The natives who live on the Argentine pampas east of the Andes, entertained friendly relations with the Araucanians, as we have seen; and these in turn assisted them in times of trouble. We attribute these relations to tribal ties. Towards the south the Andes grow lower, the passes consequently become more frequent. From Araucania comfortable mountain passes lead to Argentina, through which in modern times

a lively intercourse is maintained by the white people. Through them a mutual relation of the natives will have been kept up since a remote period. No convincing argument can be advanced against the conclusion that the Pehuenches, the Penks, and other tribes of the pampas as well as the Tsonekes of Patagonia are in racial relation with the Araucanians. They belong with these to the Malay aborigines of South America. The pampas were peopled from Araucania; eastward the stream of the first immigration flowed.

In beautiful, rich, homelike Araucania the people naturally directed their attention to the raising of some grains and vegetables and of some stock. Thereby occasion was given to erect dwellings, although rudimentary and very plain dwellings, and to observe a degree of domestic and public order, whereby praiseworthy qualities, yes virtues, were maintained and promoted. In consequence of this we found in Araucania a semblance of civilization, although no solid buildings, no industry, no art. On the extensive, naked, inhospitable pampas, however, the tribes who wandered thither roamed from place to place, like the North American Indians, did not think of tilling the soil, lived from nature's products, and grew still wilder.

In the following we bring what a historian of Argentina, Mariano A. Pelliza says in his book: "El pais de las pampas," the country of the prairies, about the natives and their manner of living. The wandering life made it necessary for the natives to seek their food as the various seasons offered it. In the summer they chose the banks of rivers and lived from fishes which they caught. In the fall they retired to the forests to catch some species of birds and to pick the fruit of the corob and other wild growing fruits which lavish nature prepared for them. The corob is the locust tree on which brown, glossy pods, 4 to 8 inches long, grow, containing a fleshy nourishing pulp, which the natives used for food and for making a liquor. The meat of fishes they dried in the

sun, and by pounding it they made fish meal. In the tropical regions of the north the natives gathered some roots and stored them up for the short winter. Corn, which tribes of the Aimares raised in certain parts of Peru and Paraguay and exported to the pampas, furnished chicha and mote, i. e. boiled corn. Drinks they also prepared from fruits which they picked from forest trees. The flesh of deer they dried in the sun to obtain charqui, i. e. dried meat, which kept a very long time.

The lazy, loitering Indian moved only when he had to seek food or was obliged to go to war. His clothing consisted of a woolen blanket which he fastened around the waist with a girdle on which ostrich feathers fluttered. The women in the torrid regions spun and wove wild cotton to make shirts. The tribes in the colder south trapped guanacos from whose furs, having sewn them skillfully, they made blankets with which they protected themselves against the cold. The thick, long, stiff, loose, greased hair they fastened with leather straps, cut from the hides of animals. The feet they wrapped up in woolly skins in the winter. The dwelling of the Indian was a miserable hut which he could lay apart or put together, wherever and whenever he cared to. It consisted of four sticks, which, tied together in pairs, were stuck in the ground; and a cross-beam which connected the pairs. Two skins or branches of trees served as roof and walls. As an example of the mental condition of the Indian and the deterioration of his mind the fact may serve that he entered his hut not uprightly as a man who is conscious of the dignity of his person, but crawled into it on all fours, to stretch out on the pile of filth that served him for a resting place. He neither had an opinion about the present, nor a remembrance of the past, nor a plan or hope for the future. The pampas Indian who supported himself meagerly, was neither economical nor temperate through conviction; his economy was the result of his poverty, not of his volition. Had he a good supply of provisions he filled himself to

excess. Had he liquor at his disposal, he drank till he fell down from intoxication. Had he neither anything to eat nor to drink, then he chewed roots to kill the time and not to starve. Such is the dry, colorless picture which Sr. Pilliza gives us of the natives of his country. It does not contain any traits of the enterprising, industrious, history making Aimares of Peru; it looks like a caricature of the Chilean Araucanians.

3. THE PATAGONIANS AND FIRELANDERS.

The sketch of the Pampas-Indians is a sketch of the Patagonians too; they are similar, almost alike. The Patagonians live on the cold, bleak plains which extend from the river Negro south to the straits of Magellan. Let the reader notice that Patagones is the name which their European discoverers gave them. When in the year 1520 Magellan, a Portuguese mariner in Spanish services, spent the winter in the bay of San Julian, where the seamen came in touch with the natives of the vicinity, they noticed that their feet were wrapped up in furs and therefore appeared to be exceedingly large. On account of their large, clumsy feet the Portuguese called them Patagones, i. e. large-footed men. They called themselves Tsonekes and Tehuelches.

A report of Naval-officer Chaworth is at our disposal in this connection. Mr. Chaworth lived among the Tehuelches one year in Indian costume and associated with all their chiefs and tribes. He did not hear them give any proper name of a god. Making inquiries as regards their religious belief, he was told that "a great spirit" is somewhere in existence who is good, but does not care much for men. These in turn do not mind him, but only take notice of the evil spirits, the Gualichus, to guard them off. In case of a dangerous sickness a nightly sham fight with clashing of arms and explosives is fought against those spirits. Each camp has its own camp-gualihu, other spirits haunt forests, rivers, rocks and must,

when one approaches the place, be made inoffensive by means of salutations and conjurations. At each birth and at each important good or evil event animal or human blood, obtained through scratching or bleeding, is sacrificed to the gualichus. To the sorcerer the gualichus appear in the forms of animals, guanacos, pumas, ostriches, eagles etc. He seeks to drive the evil spirit out of the sick by means of calling conjuring words out to the person, or by sucking his blood, and in other ways. — Piles of stones are heaped upon the graves of the dead. They live in monogamy, seldom in bigamy. They marry by choosing for themselves, show true conjugal love and love to children. When the wife dies, the husband burns all his belongings. — Their chiefs are called gamaks and are addressed by the word father. Idols they have none. Sayings, songs, and prayers which recently some older persons still knew, are now entirely forgotten. This indicates a tendency that is leading to still lower degradation. Also with the Tehuelches who lived free and independent there is no trace of evolution noticeable. The only tradition Mr. Chaworth met was the saying that the great spirit had created animals in a cave and led them upon a hill from which he scattered them over the earth. This elevation is still pointed out as the "god-hill." — Among the 1500 Tehuelches that are left from Patagonia's aborigines the curses of drinking and gambling prevail. Their number constantly decreases through combats among themselves and with neighboring tribes, and through smallpox. In the manner of living and in customs as well as in good dispositions they resemble their northern neighbors and the Araucanians; they all are of the Malay type.

The Firelanders who live south of the straits of Magellan, are nothing but a section of Tehuelches, driven still farther south. They keep up a lively intercourse with the Tehuelches of the continent and lead in the icy cold a wretched existence. Their proper name is Pecherahs and has a beautiful significance, for it means friends. Living in the southernmost part



FIRELANDERS

of South America, they belong to the most southern dwellers of our globe.

4. ORIGIN OF SOUTH AMERICA'S ABORIGINES.

The course of history thus far pursued has shown that Primitive South America counted among her inhabitants a primeval race, a race distinguished from the Mongolian Incas, from the Ancient Peruvians and their descendants, from the Chibchas and the African tribes. To this conclusion we were led on the one hand by the traditions of the Old Peruvians and the Cnibchas that their forefathers had found human beings at their immigration, and on the other hand by the facts that the first inhabitants of Peru, of Chile, of Argentina were entirely unacquainted with the masonry and industrial works of the Mongolians and not yet corrupted by the vices of those races. This primeval race we call the aborigines of South America. They were of Malay origin and must have overrun a large section of the continent already at a very early period.

Whither did they come? The Araucanian language, the only one considered briefly, has surprising similarity with the Malay language; for it owes its intrinsic construction, its grammatical make-up, and poetic swing to Java's literary language, to the ancient Kawi. Mr. Ellis met with many words of New Zealand in Araucania. According to the same investigator the original poncho of the Araucanians resembles exactly the tiputa of the Tahitians. The author of this work lived three years in Angol, the Chilean capital and military post of Araucania. Observing the Araucanians I was unintentionally often impressed with the thought that they have an Asiatic type, but neither the particular Chinese nor the Japanese type. They are of Malay origin, but bear a Mongolian resemblance. Aimares have, as Dr. Ebrard judges correctly, settled among them and introduced polygamy and the name of god Pillan. Their ancient name Cubu for god, their beau-

tiful language, their customs and weapons are of Malayan derivation.

How did Malays reach Chile's coast? Malays have, as is now admitted, peopled the entire insular world of the southern Pacific ocean. Formerly the objection was raised that an uncivilized people could not navigate in their light boats from one island or group of islands to another and settle on the islands, dispersed throughout an immense ocean. But the people were not so uncivilized or their boats so light. Since a long time, however, it has been proven that the inhabitants of all those islands, from the Malay peninsula to the Easter islands, scattered over a distance of 2400 miles from west to east, speak languages which are closely related to one another and which, consequently, belong to one and the same group of languages, the Malayan group. This proves the tribal relation of those islanders and their common descent.

Dr. Ebrard gathered much valuable information on the activity of the Malays from which we extract the following. The Malays must, already in remote times, have been a very seafaring nation. The fame of being daring and skillful sailors they have, in fact, maintained on the East India or Sunda islands up to the present day. When Mr. Cook, 1728 to 1729, made his celebrated voyages, the inhabitants of the Tongo, Figi, and New Hebrides islands lived in lively intercourse with one another. Cook and Forster received from a native of the Society islands a sort of chart on which were drawn the Marquesas, Tahiti, Samoa, and Fiji islands. On the same island Forster came in touch with a native who was able to name more than eighty islands within a distance of three hundred geographical miles; he having visited the most of them himself. Still in 1824 the inhabitants of Anaa undertook trips to Tahiti, three hundred miles distant. When the Portuguese, in the 16th century, came to the Malayan islands for the first time, they found Menang-Kabu to be the staple port of an extensive trade, carried on towards the east and the west, and

to have a naval power such as in Europe none existed at that time. One of the fleets consisted of ninety vessels, of which twenty-five were large galleys. A second fleet was composed of three hundred vessels, eighty of which carried a cargo of four hundred tons each. A third fleet of five hundred vessels carried a crew of six thousand men. Historic reports relate that in the 12th and 13th centuries a mighty Malay sea and commercial nation was in existence, with Singapore as capital. Chinese history leads still farther back in the past. Already 417 to 418 A. D. Chinese sailors found a civilized state on the island of Java. — The fleets mentioned are not any more in existence; navigation declined. Here also an effectual decline, a decaying, is noticeable; not a rising evolution. The internal causes of decline were of a religious-moral nature. In the period of the Malay's highest development and most flourishing sea trade, their language and the Kawi literature flourished; a remnant of that language we found among the Araucanians, the aborigines of Chile. The Europeans found the Malayan islanders as a race doomed to destruction; the process of deterioration had begun long before the arrival of the white people. — If we now ask the question, what means had those islanders at their disposal to find their course on the high seas, having neither compass nor instruments of observation; then the Owaians still today have the tradition that their forefathers made long journeys with large fleets and directed their course by observing the stars. Another means to set the sailor right on the sea are the sea birds. Following their flight the marines will surely reach a shore. Then also the vessels of the Polynesians, though they were small as compared with our ships, were ingeniously constructed for the high-going billows; for they were protected against capsizing by means of ploys.

CHRONOLOGICAL SURVEY OF PRIMITIVE SOUTH AMERICA.

Thus far we have retraced the historic events of Primitive South America, going from the Incas backward to the Aborigines, a period of 3000 years. In the following brief survey, however, we follow the current of events chronologically.

The strictly grammatical and poetic language of the Araucanians is a relic of the Kawi, i. e. of Java's literary and poetic language, which flourished on the island of Java in the time of the first Christian centuries and from there spread its cultivating influence over the seafaring, commercial islanders of the Southern Pacific. The Araucanians must have come to America in the flourishing period of their race. Others had preceded since a long period and had settled down in the territories towards the north and the east. It is likely that the Malay immigration into South America lasted many centuries, that continent having become the terminus of the voyages of the South Sea islanders. For when the Japanese immigrated into Peru 100 A. D., the national god of those aborigines, god Con, had held sway over the Andes already 1000 years. They had then already sunken into decay. In remote antiquity then the first Malays must have come to Chile, to Peru, to Colombia, and to the eastern slopes beyond the Andes. From the west coast of the continent they will have, in troops, overrun the pampas of the south and penetrated into the selvas of the center. Dr. Ebrard, for other reasons, fixes the arrival of the first Malays between 1400 and 1600 B. C. According to this view South America began to be peopled at the time the Israelites wandered in the Arabian desert.

Fifteen hundred years the Malay tribes had lived in South America, had in this long period gained little or nothing for themselves from the new world, having impressed upon it only a few signs of their existence, had rather given way to

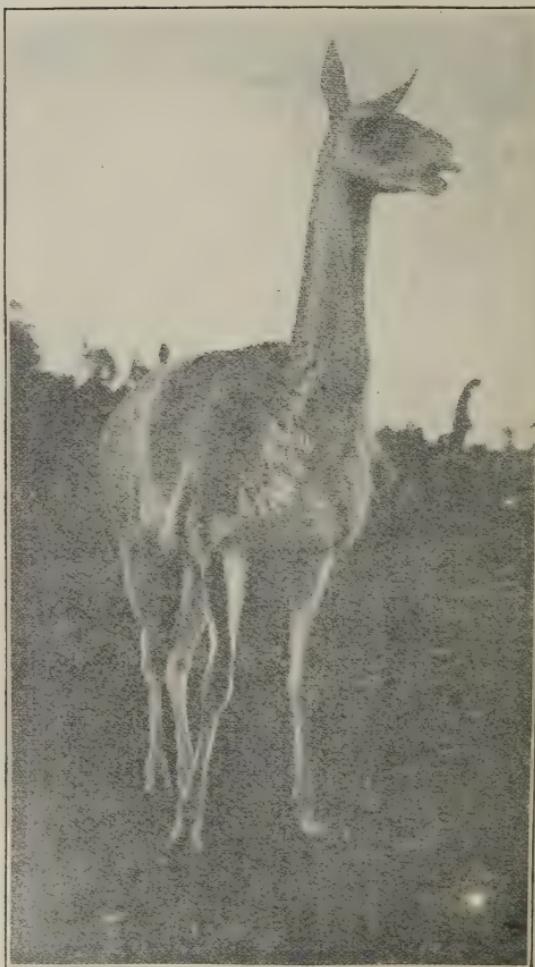
the strenuous natural forces, had deteriorated, and grown wild; when the Japanese immigrants arrived a century after Christ. These penetrated into Colombia and Peru and unfolded, in the period of eleven hundred years, that enormous activity which gave the plateau of the Andes a new aspect. Agriculture, industry, and the art of building flourished; Pachacamac was the national god; eighty kings are said to have followed in the government. Prosperity there also gendered luxuriousness, a vicious mode of living which gnawed at the very vitals of the nation. The Ancient Peruvians declined, deteriorated, decayed religiously, morally, politically. Pachacamac became an idol; the people separated into sections and tribes, and turned against one another. In the mean time groups had branched off and traveled in almost all directions, many into Brazil's tropical forests. About 600 A. D. African sea robbers drifted to South America's northern shores; and possibly a little later Congo negroes were carried to the coast of Brazil. In Brazil's gigantic forests Asiatic Mongols and African negroes met. Thousands of years previous, their progenitors had wandered away from the common homeland of Mesopotamia in exactly opposite directions, carrying with them the reminiscences.

About the middle of the 13th century when the Ancient Peruvians had reached a very low degree of decay, the Chinese Incas arrived and began their reformatory work among the Aimares. Within three centuries they subdued the entire table-lands of the Andes, establishing a grand empire. The noble work of the benevolent Incas had hardly been carried to a finish, when the Spaniards came in 1532 and demolished it. According to modern views South America's history began only with the Spanish conquests, while in reality it had its beginning three thousand years earlier.

Primitive South America does not favor evolutionary theories, but substantiates the accounts of Genesis. The careful reader will have noticed the downward tendencies, the

degrading forces that were at work in all the tribes, peoples, and kingdoms of Primitive South America. Everywhere we had to record a decline from a belief in an invisible god to idolatry and oracles; from higher intellectual powers to stupidity; from constructive and embellishing ability to incompetency; from abler, purer lives to vices, cruelties, barbarism. The theories of evolution can not be applied to the history we have gone through; namely the theories that man developed from low beginnings to higher ability, to nobler form, or that the aborigines were indigenous to the native soil, i. e. had originated from animal life, say from monkeys. In the mind of man, in his study, such theories may arise and seem to be the correct ones; the history of primitive humanity, however, disproves them. History teaches that all the aborigines of South America immigrated. 3500 years ago there was not yet a human being on that continent. The routes of their wanderings we have traced; the first came from the Southern Pacific islands, the others from Mongolian countries and Africa. Primitive South America does not support the mentioned theories of evolution.

It, however, substantiates teachings of the Bible. The Bible teaches the descent of mankind from one common parentage, teaches its unity. The routes of the wanderings of the Primitive South Americans point westward and eastward, they point to the old world. Those wanderers all brought religious traditions, sayings of a deluge and of creation. Is it not remarkable that the Ancient Peruvians, the Chibchas, the Araucanians had such sayings, sayings of a deluge which god sent because men were disobedient, a deluge out of which three men only were saved? These traditions are re-echoes of the accounts of Genesis. The forefathers of Moses and the progenitors of the South Americans were all descendants of Noah, the hero of the Bible. Thus we find the history and traditions of the primitive inhabitants of South America to be testimonies to the biblical teachings of the oneness of the human family.



A GUANACO
whose wool the natives spun, whose skin they wore

DIVISION II

MEDIEVAL SOUTH AMERICA

1500 to 1810

MEDIEVAL SOUTH AMERICA we term that division of our history which was introduced by the Spanish conquests and continued during the colonial times. It ushered in with the 16th century and came to a close when the revolution of independence broke out in 1810, lasting 300 years. In the first period of this division the capitals and other principal cities of the various countries were founded.

The South American middle age is characterized by shocking brutalities and the feudal system, by the dominating spirit of the Roman clergy and the peninsular Spaniards, by the monopoly of agriculture and commerce, and by the absence of industry, of public schools, of books and printing establishments. Stagnation everywhere, modern progress nowhere.

The dark age of the southern continent is related in our fourth and fifth periods.

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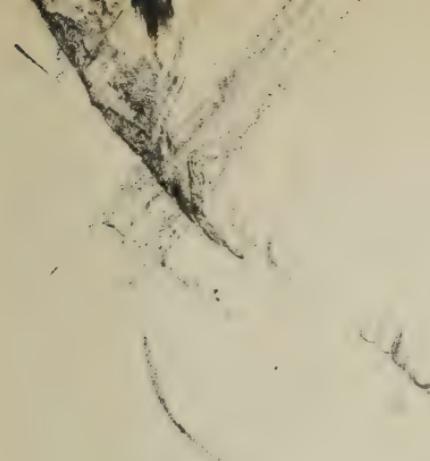
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PERIOD IV

DISCOVERIES AND CONQUESTS

1499 to 1618

DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST OF NEW GRANADA.

1502 to 1550.

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, having concluded his fourth voyage to the new world in 1502, made explorations in company with his brother *Bartholomew* on the northern coast of South America. Christopher returned to Spain in 1504, while his brother endeavored to found a colony with eighty men near the mouth of the river Belen. The natives were kind until Columbus attempted to make them feel his superiority and to bring them into subjection. For this purpose he seized their chief and his family, detaining them in one of his vessels. In spite of the vigilance of the Spaniards the chief succeeded to escape by plunging into the sea and swimming to the shore. The rest of the family was one morning found dead, having preferred death to slavery. On account of this rash and unjust deed of Bartholomew Columbus, the natives became indignant and, attacking the colony in large numbers, forced the strangers to leave their coast who being reduced in number left for Jamaica. Those natives were the Carinas.

In 1510, *Sr. Mejeda* made an attempt to establish a colony on the northern shore. He laid the plans for a city and called the place San Sebastian. Here also the natives who were very warlike attacked repeatedly, reduced the Spanish establishments to ashes, and drove the intruders with losses from their shores. In these combats two men distinguished themselves who later became prominent: *Vasco Nunyez de Balboa*, who discovered the Pacific at Panama, and *Francisco Pizarro*, the conqueror of Peru.

In spite of recent disasters and losses the Spaniards made

up their minds again to establish themselves on the coast. They took some territory from the natives who lived on the gulf of Darien and founded a town they called Antigua del Darien. The genius and courage of *Balboa* gave him prestige among his companions, and they declared him their leader. *Balboa* entered into friendly relations with a number of native chiefs and received 4000 castilians worth of metal and also other gifts from them. Treasures which the Spaniards received or stole from the natives, they divided among themselves. When at a certain distribution they quarreled, Panquiaco, the oldest son of a chief, rebuked their avarice and told them that if it were gold they wanted, they could find it in large quantities beyond the mountains of the south. There they would find another sea and on its shores nations of white men, who wear elegant dresses. To the dark Carinas the Peruvians may have looked white. This intimation was the first notice which *Balboa* obtained about the sea of the south, i. e. the Pacific Ocean. He resolved to discover it, but was obliged to wait till the season permitted the undertaking.

September 1st, 1513, *Balboa* started with 190 Spaniards and 1000 friendly natives to find the unknown sea. Fighting their way through the isthmus of Panama, they scaled the mountains and in the forenoon of September 25th they beheld the boundless ocean in the distance towards the south. On the elevation where they stood they erected a pyramid of stones on whose top *Balboa* planted a cross and a flag of Castilia. Then the expedition divided into three sections, which were commanded by Alonzo Martin, Francisco Pizarro, and *Balboa* respectively, to make the march down to the sea, a march of two or three days. Each section took a separate route, *Balboa* reaching the shores last. He entered the water and in the name of the king of Spain took possession of the vast expanse, which he called South Sea. Then they started back on their return trip, again taking different routes. Conquering two more chiefs and taking their treasures, they returned to Antigua del Darien,



VASCO NUNYEZ DE BALBOA
The Discoverer of the Pacific

heavily laden with gold and covered with fame. The colonists of that place celebrated the triumphs of their leader and the great discovery. Balboa immediately dispatched Peter Arbolancha to Spain to make announcement of the discovery to the Spanish Court where the achievement was likewise celebrated. Balboa received many honors and the title of adelantado which entitled him to the position of a governor.

Unfortunately, *Pedrarias Davila* had already been appointed governor of the region which the Spaniards had explored and had left Spain with his expedition April, 1514. This man was a fair example of the Spanish courtiers who played an interesting role in the South American history. Davila wanted to land at Santa Marta, but the natives opposed him with such desperate resistance that he was obliged to desist from landing. Opposed by winds, he finally sailed for Antigua where Balboa was thatching his house when the expedition appeared. Various of the colonists advised him to resist with force; but Balboa refused to listen to such insinuations and he with all his people went to the shore to receive the new governor. Davila began his duties by taking steps against Balboa. First he put his residence up for sale, then he pondered how to take all duties and honors from him and how to make him to be forgotten. He forced him to pay a few thousand dollars to Enciso, whose belongings he himself had embarked. Davila ordered his officers to scour the country in search of gold for the purpose of paying salaries. With this innovation the time of blood and pillage began. John de Ayora was placed at the head of the gold-seekers. To keep the contracts the chiefs had made with Balboa, they received Ayora kindly, but he made use of this native kindness to plunder them the more thoroughly. Chief Tumanama, indignant at such felony, attacked Ayora and his company with a great force, obliging them to fortify themselves. The Spaniards had started to build a town, but the natives one night burned the beginnings.

As the colonists of Antigua murmured on account of the

inactivity and forgetfulness in which Balboa was kept, Davila ordered him to explore the river Grande in search of the treasury of Dabaibe. The natives living along the river were very warlike and, surprising Balboa and his expedition, defeated him completely. Only after great hardships was Balboa, wounded and badly treated, able to return to Antigua. — Then Davila sent Caspar Morales out on a new expedition, with Penyalosa as subaltern. Morales conquered the chief who desperately opposed him, but could not follow out his advantages, because Penyalosa needed his assistance; for the depredations of the latter had caused the whole district in which he had pillaged, to revolt. Morales having joined his force with that of his subaltern, invited all the chiefs to a peaceful interview. They came in good faith with their escorts, but Morales treacherously made all the chiefs prisoners. Thereupon they attacked the escorting natives and butchered 700 of them. The eighteen imprisoned chiefs were devoured by dogs. Such barbarous cruelty caused the war-cry to be raised throughout that territory. All the tribes responded and united to take revenge. From now on Morales and his men were desperately attacked and forced to a horrible retreat. For, being constantly surrounded by numerous enemies, who replaced one another ceaselessly, they had not a moment of rest. Lost in that territory and without guides, they were forced to forsake a large part of the treasures they had taken. At last a few were so fortunate as to reach Antigua, being living examples of the bloody system Davila had instituted.

The expeditions brought many native prisoners to Antigua. Although the instructions of the king prescribed that they be treated with consideration and be accorded full liberty, Davila sent them to Santo Domingo where they were sold as slaves. Though the bishop protested against this injustice, his accusations at the Court were futile; for the high patronage which the governor enjoyed, was of more effect than the justice of the cause which the humane prelate advocated.

The colonists continued to express dissatisfaction with the government of Davila and to exhibit love towards Balboa. This circumstance excited the governor's envy. It was then that Balboa obtained the oft sought permission to undertake an expedition in the South Sea. Accompanied by eighty men who followed him voluntarily, he led the expedition across the isthmus to fort Acla where they stayed some time to cut lumber for vessels. This they floated down the river Balsas to the Sea, where they built two vessels in which they purposed to explore the coast. When Davila heard that Balboa was about to set sail the old envy revived in his heart and tormented him. For the sake of this motive he resolved to destroy his rival and sent emissaries after him who should call him back to Acla where he would give him his final instructions. As soon as Balboa appeared before Davila, the latter ordered F. Pizarro to perform the sad duty of laying him in chains. Davila accused Balboa to have the intention of making the countries he might discover independent, made the disposition to try him, and in writing ordered judge Espinosa to condemn him to death. Balboa protested constantly against the evil accusations and maintained his innocence. It was in vain. Useless also was the interest which the colonists exhibited to save him. His destruction being determined, Balboa had to go to the gallows (1514). Such was the sad end of the discoverer of the Pacific. History keeps him in high regard and Pedrarias Davila is known as the executioner.

The town of Panama consisted up to 1518 only of a number of irregularly built houses. In that year Governor Davila resolved to found a city on the Pacific and he chose the location of Panama. The colonists of Antigua de Darien were unwilling to follow the governor to that place, being at variance with him. Only when in 1519 the order came from the Spanish Court to transplant the civil government and the episcopal seat to Panama, the inhabitants of Antigua relinquished their opposition and moved to the new city on the Pacific.

Panama is the only town that continued to exist of those that had been founded up to the year 1519 and is the oldest city in Spanish South America.

Once established in Panama, nothing was undertaken in the line of discovery and conquest until in 1525 Francisco Pizarro conceived the notion to explore the sea his ill-fated friend, Balboa, had discovered. He communicated his thought to Captain Diego de Almagro and to Hernando de Luque who was a clerical. The three agreed to sign a contract in virtue of which the first two should undertake to explore new lands, while the latter should raise \$20,000 which they believed to be necessary for the undertaking. The expedition thus initiated resulted in the discovery of Peru, as we shall relate at the proper place.

While Pizarro and his men sailed south, other expeditioners arrived at the northern coast and made their way into the interior to make explorations. Out of a number of these we shall mention *Bastidas* only, who observed a kind and humane way of proceeding with the natives, as he believed that thus he could gain their good will. Thereby, however, he made cruel enemies among his men, for these wanted to enrich themselves by depredations. Not being able to satisfy their avarice, they overpowered Bastidas at a time when he was sick and stabbed him. When at his cries Rodrigo Palomino came to his aid, the would-be assassins fled. They were apprehended and sent to Santo Domingo, where they were tried and executed. Bastidas entrusted the command to Palomino, went to Cuba for his recovery, but died of his wounds at his arrival. In a later expedition Palomino lost his life, drowning in a river which was named after him.

The Spanish Court entrusted the government to *Garcia de Lerma* and gave him explicit instructions in regard to the natives. The explorers were prohibited to reduce them to slavery and all those who had been sent to the West Indian islands should be brought back to their native villages. These

instructions were kept on paper and were never carried out, just as those which former Governor Davila had brought. The Court even sent Thomas Ortiz in the capacity of an official protector of the natives, but neither his constant reclamations availed anything. As far as the Spanish Court is concerned, they were not guilty of the cruelties and of the slavery carried on in their South American colonies. — Garcia de Lerma arrived with his elegant expedition in 1529 and sent his 500 men in search of provisions. In the Bonda mountains as well as on the Ramada plains they were well received by the natives. The governor made use of this favorable circumstance for the purpose of distributing their lands among the expeditioners who agreed to pay a recompense to the native owners. Garcia de Lerma resolved to divide and distribute also the lands of the Pocigueica tribe, as they were most valuable. He went there in spite of the warnings of some experienced captains who feared an attack. And so it came. The governor was attacked, completely defeated, and returned to Santa Marta wounded and without the 100 men of his body guard, who were killed, and without the rich outfit he had taken with him. As Lerma was on friendly terms with the Bonda Indians he somewhat later intended to subdue those of Coto and also the revolting Pocigueica tribe which had defeated him lately. He ~~marched~~ out with a force, but was again obliged to retreat and to return without having accomplished anything. At this time flattering news arrived from Pizarro who was conquering Peru.

Governor de Lerma resolved to send an expedition in search of the burial places of Sinu which, according to tradition, held fabulous wealth. With 110 resolute captains and men Sr. Viana, a clerical, set out and marched along the Magdalena river until they reached the influx of the Cauca which river they then followed. Although they were not opposed by enemies on this long march, because the Indians left their villages when the expedition approached, they, nevertheless,

suffered all kinds of hardships. The first difficulty was the death of their leader, Viana; next came their quarrel at the election of a successor, then followed lack of provisions, the unhealthfulness of the climate, the plague of insects,—all resulting in a thorough discouragement. After eight months of strenuous and useless explorations they thought it best to return to Santa Marta. There they heard of the death of the governor, Garcia de Lerma.

Peter de Heredia, a former explorer of New Granada, had gone to Spain and obtained the right from the Spanish Court to establish himself between the river Magdalena and the isthmus of Panama. Having organized an expedition, he returned to the new world, entered the bay of Cartagena January 14th, 1533, and promptly began operations. He had brought with him *Francisco Cesar*, who for the nobility of character shall occupy our attention soon. Heredia wished to gain the natives of that coast in his favor and, therefore, sent them presents; but they returned them promptly. Thereupon he attacked the town of Turbaco with 50 riflemen and 20 horsemen. The natives made a desperate struggle to defend their homes, the battle lasting a whole day. Heredia ran great danger of his life on account of the heat of the sun and the smoke and also Cesar who removed 32 arrows from his knitted curass. Finally, however, the natives were defeated, their village was reduced to ashes, and the victors returned to the coast. January 21st of the same year they laid the plan for the city of Cartagena, which was the third on the continent to survive; Panama and San Sebastian being the two others. The next nearest chief was Carex whom Heredia endeavored to gain by friendly means. Carex declined to accept peace, was attacked, made a prisoner, and paid his conquerors more than 100,000 ducades worth of gold. Chief Bahaire took notice, accepted peace, and not only surrendered gold amounting to 60,000 ducades to the Spaniards, but also assisted in bringing other neighboring chiefs into submission.

The governor then made a visiting tour to various chiefs and returned to Cartagena with a million and half ducades' worth of gold. The treasures so far received were now distributed among the participants and each soldier received a share amounting to 6000 ducades. This is said to have been the richest distribution ever made in the time of conquests, including Mexico and Peru. On another expedition Heredia undertook to find the mines from which the precious metal had been extracted and he returned with gold worth 400,000 ducades. Thus he had received and robbed two million ducades worth of gold, which may equal to 40 million dollars in American currency. The Spaniards knew how to make money.

Francisco Cesar was a hero of rare qualities in the Spanish conquests. He had been with Peter de Heredia from the beginning and had rendered him valuable services. But Heredia appointed his own brother, Alonso, commanding general, instead of Cesar. It was an injustice to the latter and he felt it, but conquered himself and served under the new leader. Alonso de Heredia sent Cesar to the coast in search of provisions. The latter found them very abundantly in Tolu whose chief even presented him with 100,000 ducades of gold. Heredia demanded this metal from Cesar; but the latter refused to deliver it, saying it must be distributed among the expeditioners. Cesar having returned as far as Zenu was put on trial and condemned to death; however, no one could be found who would execute the judgment. — *The treasure of Dabaibe* had been the object of search since a long time. Alonso de Heredia's mind was so thoroughly bent upon finding this treasure that he would not permit any one else to go in search of it. April 1536 he started out with 210 men to find the treasure. The expedition suffered many hardships, the most of the men perished, and the rest returned without the treasure of Dabaibe. The following year Cesar, followed by 100 volunteers, marched out of San Sebastian to search for the same treasure, taking the route along the sea-shore. Having

overcome great difficulties, the expedition finally reached the country of chief Untibara who opposed them with 2000 Indians. The ensuing fight was desperate until Cesar succeeded to kill the chief's brother, whereupon the natives retreated. The Spaniards took gold amounting to 40,000 ducades, and concluded to retire to San Sebastian for the purpose of returning with a larger force of men, as the country was well populated and rich. At his arrival at San Sebastian, Cesar heard of the sad misfortune of the Heredias. The governor and his brother had been accused by the Audiencia of Santo Domingo of having retained the fifth part of the income due the king and of not having suppressed slavery. They had been thrown into a prison and been burdened with shackles. Cesar who arrived at mid-night, at once went to the dungeon where those were held who had formerly condemned him to death. He spoke kind and conciliatory words to them. Then he brought them their part of the treasures which the last trip had produced and even entrusted them with his own fortune with the request to take it to the Court for safe-keeping. Not satisfied yet, he took all necessary steps to the end that Sr. Vadillo, their judge, might improve their condition. This broke their hearts and Cesar's former enemies became his admirers.

We will now turn to the conquest of the kingdom of the Chibchas and advise the reader to reread the extended account we give of this kingdom in division I, pages 95 to 109. This kingdom was the second center of Primitive South American civilization. The Spaniards knew of it and undertook its conquest in 1536 in three expeditions, commanded by *Nicolas Federman, Sebastian de Belalcazar, and Jimenez de Quesada*. The latter accomplished the work. Each commander started from a separate town and pursued a different route into the interior. We shall not follow each expedition separately or relate their dangers, their fights with the natives, their privations, sicknesses, and numbers of dead in detail. However, Quesada e. g. left Santa Marta with 820 men on foot and 85 horsemen and

within a year had only 166 men left. Belalcazar attacked the kingdom of Quito and captured the city. While he was there, he again heard of Cundinamarca, the country in which the caciques covered themselves with gold dust and bathed in lakes which the people kept sacred. Belalcazar naturally resolved to go to that country and look for "El dorado." He came to the country of the Chibchas after Quesada had conquered it, but did not find the golden man; however, on this search he caused the town of Cali to be founded, while he himself laid the plan for the city of Popayan, the management of which he entrusted to Garcia de Tovar.

Quesada was the first to arrive at the country of the Chibchas. There *Bogata* had just become Zipa and had seized the reins of government. *Ramiriqui*, the chief of Tunja, unintentionally and indirectly communicated to the Zipa the arrival of a few strange men who demanded obedience to a foreign monarch. The Zipa called his principal warriors and selected 600 men of valor, believing this number to suffice to fight the handful of adventurers. These 600 natives first met that part of Quesada's force which had the sick in charge; but a few captains hurled themselves with such fury against the natives that their retreat was already decided when Quesada arrived with reenforcement. The natives, pursued by the Spaniards, fled to fort Busongote. Quesada with all his probably 150 men began the siege, but only a few fierce attacks were necessary to take the fort. The chief of Suba received the strangers peacefully and offered his services to open communications with Bogata. The latter, at first refusing to go to the Spanish camp, by and by consented, but did not go. Quesada grew tired of waiting for the Zipa, lifted the camp, and marched to Guatavita, the capital. The natives set fire to their dwellings and abandoned the city; the Spaniards, however, arrived in time to extinguish the conflagration. Many days they sought the Zipa in vain. To occupy the country Quesada sent one section of his men south and the other west, under

San Martin and Cespedes respectfully. The first entered the territory of the Panches who offered them a battle in which the Spaniards came in such sore straits that they were about to be defeated. They withdrew and did not again molest the



THE LICENDIADO, GONZALO JIMENEZ DE QUESADA,
CONQUEROR OF THE CHIBCHAS

Panches for some time. The native city of Tunja was the seat of Zaque Ramiriqui, which Quesada determined to take. August 20th, 1537, at sunset he appeared before the city and demanded entrance without delay. The gates were forced open and Suarez Rondon placed himself with his knights inside the court which was surrounded by palisades, while Quesada with a few men entered the palace where the sovereign

awaited them. He appeared dressed in the royal insignias and, being red with anger, received the intruders with cold dignity. Quesada, hearing the murmurs of the natives and considering the small number of his men, resolved to make quick work. He ordered Anton de Olaya to apprehend the Zaque, which he did without more ado. Then they looked for the treasures of the Zaque and got enough to satisfy their avarice. Having succeeded thus far, the prisoner had no reason to complain, as regards the respect and treatment they accorded him.

Next the rich temple of Sagomoso in the venerable district of Iraca drew the attention of the conquerors. They looked for those places first where they could make the richest spoils. In the first days of September they left Tunja. As they approached the town of Sagomoso the natives attempted to defend it, but were readily defeated. The Spaniards entered the place which had been kept sacred since centuries. The shadows of the night having fallen they resolved to wait until next morning to sack the temple. However, two soldiers, more ambitious than the others, succeeded to enter through two windows which they forced open. The reader already knows how through this rash act the temple was set on fire and burned to ashes with the priest and the golden treasures of the sanctuary and the traditions of a nation. Quesada marched from place to place and finally established his camp in Suesca where he gave the Zaque his liberty, whom he had carried with him as prisoner. The Zaque endured the remorse caused by the calamity that had come over him, a few days only; then he died. Leaving the camp in charge of his brother Hernan Perez, Quesada set out on another expedition to look for more treasures. They found much gold in the valley of Neiva because the district was rich in this metal; but they did not find enough provisions to satisfy their want. Thus they continued in their search, hungry and starved, and came into such sad straits that no one was strong enough to carry the stolen gold; so they were about ready to leave the

treasure behind. What a spectacle those Spaniards must have presented — the natives fleeing them, and they with their treasures of gold at the point of starvation. On the savannah of Bogata they distributed the taken treasures among their number. The entire amount of gold distributed was equal to 246,972 ducades; they also had 1,815 emeralds, besides what the captains may have kept apart for themselves. Scouring the country, fighting the natives to take their treasures, the Spaniards appear like highway robbers. In an engagement they captured two natives, of whom they wanted to learn the hiding place of Zipa Bogata. One preferred death to the rebuke of being a traitor to his sovereign, while the other told them the hiding place. Bogata had withdrawn to the western mountains, to the neighborhood of Focatativa where he had an inclosed place. Thither Quesada and his men went. Marching all night, they took the natives by surprise. However, the latter put up a fight and in the tumult of the darkness one of Quesada's soldiers killed the Zipa, without knowing it. While the natives carried his body away, the Spaniards searched all the blankets for values, found, however, but little gold. The Zipa naturally had placed his treasures in safety.

A new Zipa had to be chosen. The chief of Cia was the legitimate heir; but for various reasons *Sajipa* was made Zipa. As not all the courtiers were in favor of Sajipa, a spirit of discontent became prevalent, which the Spaniards turned to their advantage. Sajipa had to contend with various enemies, principally with the Panches, and sought the help of the Spaniards. He was well received by them and, being asked to acknowledge the superiority of the Spanish king, swore allegiance to him. Being now the allied of Quesada, the Spaniards assisted him in his war with the Panches, who were defeated and made subjects of Zipa Sajipa. Sad to say: Sajipa's new friends were his worst enemies. First the Spaniards demanded of him the surrender of the former Zipa's treasure, then they asserted that he was a usurper and that the Zipaship

belonged to the cacique of Cia. Quesada determined his arrest. When the natives were still rejoicing on account of the victory over the Panches and were in the midst of a general merriment, Quesada gave orders to imprison Sajipa who was his ally. The Spaniards soon took to cruelty. A trial that was instituted, was a farce; for Sajipa's friends were his enemies and his judges were his executioners. He was condemned to death and died under the application of most barbarous torments. This injustice was one of the darkest spots in Quesada's career.

To continue the conquest Quesada believed he should receive permission directly from the Court and, therefore, planned to go to Spain. But prior to starting he felt the necessity of laying out the plan for the capital of the new empire. He decided in favor of the locality where the summer house of Zipa Bogata stood, which place Fernandez Valenzuela had already pointed out. Twelve houses and a church, all thatched, were constructed in 1538 and the new capital was called Santa Fe de Bogata. Quesada appointed a board of aldermen and thereby created the first beginning of civil government in the interior. About this time the other two expeditions that also had started out for the conquest of the Chibchas, reached that part of the country. Belalcazar and his men having captured Quito arrived, dressed in rich clothes; Federman and his men, however, wore skins of wild animals which they had hunted on the llanos of Venezuela. Quesada asked the leaders to accompany him on his voyage to Spain and they consented. To Federman he made the offer of paying him \$10,000 for his expeditionary force and outfit. Also the venerable Las Casas agreed to accompany them. Las Casas was known as a protector of the Indians, who were often cruelly treated by the explorers. He had preached for some time in Bosa, then in Bojacá and was now priest of Santa Fe. This latter mission was put in charge of Father Verdejo who had come with Federman. The three captains and the priest embarked at Guataqui on the Caribbean Sea May 16th, 1539, for Spain.

While these leaders were absent from New Granada, other captains undertook operations. We will follow some principal movements to obtain a closer insight in the affairs of those early times. Jimenez de Quesada had placed his brother *Hernan Perez* in charge of the general government. *George Robledo*, however, had for a long time been one of his brightest and most successful captains. He now undertook to found towns in the valley of the river Cauca, occupied the province of Auserma and there founded the town of Santa Ana. He defeated various tribes and brought others to submission by peaceful measures. Robledo thus secured a large and rich territory, of which he intended to obtain the governmental position; in this intention, however, he was wrong and ran great risk, as we shall see. He also explored the territory towards the south and founded the city of Cartago with all legal formalities. There he was halted in his successful career by the arrival of licensed *Pascal de Andagoya* who was sent by the Spanish Court as governor of a district along the coast. As soon as his authority had been recognized, he took possession of the city of Santa Ana which had been founded by Robledo. The latter submitted to Andagoya's authority, surrendered to him even a part of the gold he had acquired, and then returned to Cartago without delay. In the mean time Belalcazar had returned from Spain. He had obtained the government which he had solicited from the Spanish Court and having returned to Cali in 1541, he was recognized as governor by officials and colonists. Andagoya wanted to resist forcibly, but, abandoned by all his men, he had to follow Belalcazar as prisoner to Popayan. There a worse fate would have been his, had not Vaca de Castro intervened. Balalcazar then sent to Robledo to demand his obedience which the latter readily gave. Nevertheless, the completeness, with which Robledo had recognized Andagoya, gave rise to the mistrust which Governor Belalcazar henceforth entertained towards him and which later became fatal to Robledo and a cloud that darkened Belalcazar's fame.

Robledo in the course of time still carried out many brilliant exploits and finally made up his mind to go to Spain to solicit recompense for his services. With twelve men he reached San Sebastian to embark for the homeland. But there Alonso de Heredia, considering him a defrauder of his brother's rights, put him in prison, took his gold from him, and wanted to send him as a prisoner to Spain. Before Robledo was embarked, Cuza de Leon, the historian, went in his behalf to Panama to defend him before the audiencia, but did not achieve any result. Then he went to Popayan, but there Belalcazar had already declared Robledo a rebel and a traitor. Such were the charges that rested upon this successful explorer on his way to Spain. He wanted to solicit favors, but went home under heavy accusations.

The other two companions of Belalcazar, Quesada and Federman, had not obtained any favors from the Court of Spain. Federman had lost the fortune he had acquired in the new world and it appears the Spanish Court granted no favors without pay. Quesada, the conqueror of the Chibchas and founder of the new capital, had not had the ability to solicit before the Court, which, indeed, was petitioned at the same time by a rival of his, both having the same object in view. This rival was *Alonso Luis de Lugo* who claimed that a government had been promised his father "for two generations." Lugo was successful and became governor of the country of the Chibchas in 1542. He came to the new world, not to make the colony prosperous, not to advance the welfare of the natives, but to enrich himself in the shortest time possible. Lugo's way of doing things is another example of the policy of the Spanish courtiers. The desire of amassing gold, however, was predominant with all the Spanish explorers and managers. One of Lugo's first official acts was to nullify the distribution of the contributions the natives paid in the province of Guane; the paid contributions which used to be distributed among the Spanish landowners, should now flow into his own purse. This

measure produced two bad results — those who had participated in the distributions became Lugo's enemies and so much the more as they saw that he claimed for himself what he deprived them of, and the collectors of the contributions began to extort. They treated the natives in such a manner that these preferred to leave their villages or were inclined to follow the example of Chianchon who slew the collectors who wanted to impoverish him, and proclaimed an insurrection. In view of the good results the nullification of the distribution in the province of Guane had produced for his own purse, Lugo took steps to urge the town boards to extend that measure to all provinces. The people of Santa Fe and Malaga refused to give up the income from their encomiendas; but Lugo decreed by himself and for himself, to force them to forfeit this income. He, however, took care to keep some of his partisans in good humor, while the discontentment was spreading and endangering his authority. His policy had created serious conditions and he felt that he was obliged to meet opposition with force. So he took steps against several encomenderos, imprisoned six, and confiscated their properties. Among these prisoners were Saurez Rondon, Galiano, and the two brothers Quesada. About this time the Court sent judges who should reside in New Granada. Lugo, fearing their arrival, resolved to escape and to go to Santa Marta to embark for Spain. The prisoners mentioned he took with him to the coast. In Santa Marta he purchased a ship; but before embarking he was arrested by the officers for his acts of violence, and the prisoners were set free. However, Lugo sailed and was again apprehended at Havana. There he bribed the judge. Arriving in Spain he was not even called on to give an account; for he had many protectors in the Court, and 300,000 ducades in his purse. Later in life Lugo was engaged in wars in Italy, and he died in Milan. In New Granada he had left his relative, Montalo de Lugo, in charge of the government.

To characterize those times more thoroughly we shall re-

late two cases of cruelty. *Peter de Anyasco* had founded the town of Timaná. This colony would have prospered, had Anyasco known how to dominate his cruel temperament. Without known reasons he burned alive the son of the powerful female chief Gaitana. The enraged mother took revenge. She went throughout the neighboring districts, preaching revolt and war, and united 6000 warriors under her banner with whom she marched against Timaná. She surprised twenty of Anyasco's men, had them all killed and took barbarous and bloody revenge upon Anyasco. After these events the colonists of the district lived in perpetual alarm. They finally agreed to offer the management and protection of the colony to *John Cabrera*. The natives believed that they would fare better with the new chief, and hence brought him gold, fruits, and provisions. Cabrera received them kindly and asked them to come in larger numbers and to help erect comfortable houses. So they did; they came and helped. And while they were working entirely unconcerned, Cabrera and his men attacked them, killing, butchering, and covering themselves with the blood of innocent victims. Henceforth the hatred between the races was irreconcilable. The natives retired to their fastnesses whence now and then they sallied forth with irresistible force, killing and burning, and they destroyed the colony of Timaná.

The continual complaints which came from South America to the Spanish Court and the failure to enforce the regulations and laws that had been dictated to give the natives a decent and just government, induced the emperor to send *Michael Dies de Armendariz* to New Granada as a visitor to inspect the four governments which had thus far been established in that colony. The judge arrived in 1544, a few days after Lugo had departed so hurriedly. Without loss of time Armendariz opened legal proceedings against Peter de Heredia and terminated the same by suspending him from office. Then he hastened to communicate to the other governors the new

laws dictated by the monarch in favor of the natives. Emperor Charles V. had disposed in them that the Audiencias be vigilant concerning the good treatment which the natives should receive. Under no circumstance should they be made slaves, or should they be forced to work without their consent, or be obliged to carry burdens without pay. Moreover, he had ordered that the natives who were slaves be set free, that the encomenderos who treated their subjects badly be deprived of the customary contributions, and lastly it was firmly stipulated that the Spaniards shall have neither control nor power over the natives of new discovered countries. These "new laws" became the cause of disturbances and scandals throughout the colonies; for the encomenderos were accustomed to consider themselves masters over the lives and properties of the natives. Governor Belalcazar took it upon his own responsibility to suspend the enforcement of the laws. The townboards sent delegates to the Spanish Court to complain of the severity of the laws. Then originated the saying: "We obey, but we do not comply." Armendariz gave orders to apprehend a number of persons among whom were Sanchezero and the acting governor Montalvo de Lugo.

In 1545 *George Robledo* returned to Cartagena. About four years previous he had gone to the homeland under heavy accusations and now he returned with the honor and title of a marshal which the Court had granted him. Judge Armendariz recognized his title and gave him the government of Antioquia in the capacity of a subaltern to the governor of Cartagena. Thus Robledo returned to the sphere of his former activity which, alas! soon should become the place of his destruction. It was no easy task for him to obtain recognition from the men who held offices in his territory and had to employ more or less violent means. When Belalcazar arrived at Cali, he heard of Robledo's return and of what he tried to accomplish in a territory subject to his own jurisdiction. The marshal commissioned Gomez Hernandez to deliver an order

of Judge Armendariz to Belalcazar in which the judge required of him to stay in Cali. Belalcazar sent the emissary back to Robledo with the notice to vacate the territory or to think of defense and marched with 150 chosen men out to look for the marshal. The latter sent commissioners three times to sue for peace; Belalcazar, however, protested not to desire less than his old companion. It seems Robledo took this expression in a favorable sense; for he, being encamped with 70 men, dispatched a few captains to the approaching governor to arrange the treaty he apparently was looking for. Belalcazar, being already near the marshal's camp, was met by two new emissaries whom he took captive to prevent Robledo from learning the route of his march. By making a long detour he succeeded in surprising his opponent at the dawn of October 1st, 1546. Robledo wanted to resist, the majority of his men, however, left him. He then made up his mind to present himself to his enemy, expecting considerations for the sake of his former services and from the magnanimity of his opponent. Belalcazar probably would have pardoned him, but his officers whom he called together for consultation, would not. The majority decreed death punishment, which the marshal and three of his companions suffered October 5th. So ended Robledo, one of the most notable persons of the conquest.

In Madrid the widow of Marshal Robledo demanded the punishment of her husband's murderers incessantly, in consequence of which Judge Brisceno was sent to indict Belalcazar. Having arrived the judge initiated proceedings against him without delay. The result of the trial was that Governor Belalcazar was condemned to death. The condemned man, however, appealed to higher authority and the conqueror of the south was sent to Spain in the capacity of a criminal. In Cartagena he was received by Heredia and the principal neighbors with the attention due his achievements and corresponding to his disgrace. Burdened with years and sorrow and already feeble, Belalcazar died in Cartagena in 1550. Nemesis

pursued the criminals in New Granada and we shall see how she fulfilled her duty in the other countries.

Visiting Judge Armendariz resolved to extend his authority over the provinces of the interior also and carried this resolve into effect officially in Santa Fe de Bogata January 17th, 1547. To continue the explorations and to found new cities, he sent out two expeditions in opposite directions. One was successful in pacifying the natives, and founded three cities. The judge published the "new laws" also in the interior provinces with due solemnity; however the uneasiness which had resulted therefrom in other places, renewed itself here also. The boards of the principal towns sent representatives to Spain to solicit the revision or even the recall of the laws. — The continuous complaints against the supervisors (*encomenderos*) which reached the Court and the repeated petitions which the townboards brought, asking for an equal distribution of the contributions, induced the Court to establish an Audiencia in Santa Fe. This was to consist of two chambers, was definitely decreed by the emperor July 17th, 1549, and finally installed in April of the following year when the royal seal was received. The audiencia was composed of several judges, one fiscal, one clerk, one chancellor, one reporter, one treasurer, and one constable.

The establishment of the audiencia in Bogota was of the highest importance in the conquered territory; for, so far there had not been another law observed than the will of the encomenderos, who obeyed but did not comply; and the natives had to submit to their whims. The audiencia together with the judges of the districts who were to be for whites and natives alike, should be the protectors of the latter. The creation of the audiencia, therefore, is the first beginning of civil government in New Granada in the sense of a colonial regime; it is the event which brings the time of conquest to a close and initiates the colonial period.

EXPLORATIONS IN VENEZUELA.

1499 to 1567.

When the Spaniards under *Alonso de Hejeda* explored the northern coasts in 1499 they discovered a bay where the natives had built houses on piles standing in water, which were connected with the shore by bridges. As the village reminded them of Venice in Italy, they called it Venezuela, i. e. small Venice. This name was applied to the whole coast and country. These coasts were occasionally visited by more or less fruitless naval expeditions which were mainly undertaken for the purpose of seizing the natives to drag them into slavery and which consequently were dreadful for the poor Carinas. In the year 1527 *John de Ampues* was sent by the audiencia of Santo Domingo with 60 men to Venezuela to stop the infamous slave-trade. There he soon gained the friendship of a powerful chief, founded the town of Coro, and resolved to follow a system of peaceful conquest. The Spanish Court, however, conceded the right of exploring and colonizing Venezuela to the *Welsers*, a commercial company of Hamburg, Germany, who sent *Ambrose Alfinger* as their representative to those shores. As the country was poor in minerals, Alfinger followed the trade in slaves. He crossed lake Maracaibo with 180 men, pursued a course towards the south, and reached the plains of Bogata, fighting the Indians and taking their treasures. On his return to Coro the Indians attacked and wounded him; three days later he died. Two years after his death the company sent *George Spira* as governor with 400 men to Coro. He undertook a strenuous campaign of five years in which he also came into the neighborhood of Bogata, but having returned to Coro he had only 90 men left from the 400 with whom he had started out. There he died the following year. During his absence his subaltern, *Nicolas Federman*, in accord with Jimenez de Quezada, also left Coro and, pursuing a south-

westerly course, reached the country of the Chibchas. The German leader conceded his troops to Quesada for \$10,000 and went with him to Spain where he died.

Since the year 1532 an episcopal seat had been established in Coro and after Spira's death the bishop was made governor by the audiencia of Santo Domingo. During this government the German Captain *Philip von Hutten* left in search of a certain wonderland. It was said that there was a king or priest in a southland who covered himself with fragrant rosin every morning and upon this spread gold-dust. As this incommoded him at night, he washed himself in the evening and covered his body again next morning. No country could be compared with his, so rich it was in precious metals. This new version of el dorado had circulated among the Spaniards a long time, but no one knew where to locate the country. To discover the wonderland many expeditions went out from Venezuela, New Granada, and Peru and continued to go out in search during the entire 16th century. The noble and humane Von Hutten achieved the most in the long search of el dorado and his country. With 130 men under his command he left Coro in June, 1541, and went by sea to Burburata and thence he started for the llanos, continuing until he reached the town which subsequently was called San Juan de los Llanos. The march of the expedition was through trackless plains and woods, across impetuous rivers and deep morasses, in tropic heat and torrential rains that were more than enough to depress the stoutest hearts. But these dauntless soldiers of fortune pressed onward, fully convinced that they would eventually find the object of their quest. After untold trials and dangers Von Hutten, near the crest of the eastern Cordillera, to the southeast of Popayan, faced about and directed his course toward the river Guaviare, on the banks of which his Indian guide had assured him was a great city called Macatao, the capital of a region rich in gold and silver. As an evidence of the truth of his story he showed the German leader samples

of gold, fashioned in the form of apples or nisperos, which, he said, had been brought from that city. But before he could reach his eagerly coveted goal the winter season came on and the entire country was inundated, so that there was then nothing left for them to do but to seek higher grounds and await the return of the dry season. But as the district in which they took refuge was sparsely populated and almost entirely destitute of the means of subsistence the intrepid explorers soon began to experience all the horrors of famine. For a while their chief sustenance was a mixture of maize and ants. The ants were secured by placing some maize near the opening of an ant hill, and when it was covered with these insects they consumed maize and insects together, thus appeasing their hunger. But as there was not enough of this aliment for all, many were fain to appease the gnawings of hunger by consuming grubs, beetles, or other things equally disgusting. In consequence of this their hair, beards and eyebrows fell out. "Finally," writes Oviedo y Banyos, "all were covered with pestiferous tumors and poisonous ulcers, and that afflicted troop was converted into a theater of miseries and a hospital of misfortunes."

Did the hardships cause them to abandon their enterprise? Far from it. When the innundation had subsided sufficiently to permit them to travel they resumed their march; for the reported existence toward the south of a country abounding in gold and silver supplied them with a new clue and gave new zeal to the expedition. After a long and perilous march, during which they passed through the country of the Napes and visited their capital, Macatao, the brave and persevering expeditioners reached the land of the rich and powerful Oma-guas who inhabited the territory between the Guaviare and the Caqueta. Here, from an elevated position, the adventurers discredited what they fondly believed was the goal which they had so long been striving to reach. It was a city so large that though it was near at hand it extended beyond the range of

vision. The streets were straight with the houses close together and in the midst of all was an imposing edifice which, their Indian guide informed them, was the palace of Quarica, the lord of the Omaguas. The structure also served as a temple in which Von Hutton's guide stated, were idols of massive gold. Some of them, he averred, were as large as children three or four years old, while one of them was the size of a fullgrown woman. Besides these objects there were also incalculable treasures belonging to the cacique and his vassals. And beyond this great city, Von Hutton and his men were assured, were other larger and richer cities belonging to powerful chieftains who governed countless subjects and whose treasures of gold were far greater than those of the Omaguas.

With such vast riches within their grasp the adventurers were beside themselves with joy. Though their number had dwindled to but 40 men, Von Hutten, putting spurs to his horse, dashed forward, followed by his men who all confidently expected to be in a few hours the possessors of princely fortunes. But a well-directed javelin from the hand of an Omaguan Indian wounded the daring leader seriously and suddenly arrested the impetuous onset, compelling the attacking party to beat a hasty retreat. 1500 Omaguan warriors were soon in hot pursuit and shortly after engaged the invaders in battle. The Indians, however, notwithstanding their vastly superior numbers, were defeated with great loss, while the followers of Von Hutten, under the command of Pedro de Limpias, did not have a single casualty. The victors then returned to San Juan de los Llanos where a council of war was convened in which it was decided not to prosecute the enterprise so auspiciously begun without more men who had to be obtained from Coro. But Von Hutten did not live to realize his fond hopes; for he was soon afterwards cruelly murdered through the treachery of Pedro de Limpias, whereupon the other expeditioners disbanded and the enterprise came to a close.

Did Von Hutten really discover el dorado? He certainly thought so, as did likewise his brave followers. Fully crediting what his Indian guides had told him regarding the vast treasures of gold kept in the temple of the Omaguas, he concluded at once that the cacique of this tribe was no other than the long-sought-for "Gilded King." Other adventurers had but heard of el dorado, but the German commander and his men had actually located him, though this el dorado was not that of the Chibchas. They had actually gazed on his palace which was an immense storehouse of silver and gold and had entered that wonderland of the south. The Gilded King was no longer a mere chimera; he was the ruler of a densely populated region between the Guaviare and the Amazon and his people were known as Omaguas. Henceforth the names El Dorado and Omaguas were regarded as synonymous, with inexhaustible wealth.

In seventeen years the undertakings of the Welzers had produced profits neither for the company nor for the crown. Charles V., therefore, suspended their privilege and sent uninterested *J. P. Tolosa* as governor to Venezuela. He began to colonize by founding towns and apportioned the natives to the conquerors, as was customary among the Spaniards. Although Tolosa governed but a short time, his government was so appreciated that his successors followed in his footsteps, populating the country by means of founding many villages. Francisco Ficardo, was the first creole who undertook the conquest of the plains of Bogata. Repelled by the natives, he returned to Coro and with a new expedition founded various towns, one on the very spot where Caracas now stands. The formal founding of the capital, however, took place seven years later by *Diego de Losada* (1567). Venezuela, however, continued two hundred years longer to be managed by a governor who was responsible to the audiencia of Santo Domingo, until the year 1773 when it was raised to a general captainship.

DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST OF PERU.

1525 to 1544.

We have already learned how *Francisco Pizarro*, *Diego de Almagro*, and *Ferdinand Luque* made a contract in Panama to explore lands that might border the South Sea. Pizarro was of obscure birth, did not even know how to read, and had in his home country been in charge of herds of swine. Almagro had been an orphan in the village of Almagro in Spain where he had been maintained by alms. In middle life he had entered the army as a soldier and given evidence of valor. The low estate of these two men gives some explanation for their rude and barbarous ways of dealing in after life. Luque was a clergyman in the cathedral of Panama and enjoyed the dignity of a school-teacher. According to the contract they had signed, Pizarro should undertake explorations directly, Almagro should follow with ammunitions, provisions, and reinforcements, while Luque was to maintain friendly relations with the authorities of Panama and provide all kinds of necessities for the expedition for which they thought \$20,000 were necessary.

Pizarro set sail in 1524 with 114 men. He touched various places on the coast south of Panama, but while attempting a landing he was repelled by the natives. The expeditioners in the course of time encountered a thousand difficulties and adversities and were obliged to seek refuge on the sandy island of Gallo where hunger and thirst, climate, tempests, and diseases decimated their number during a seven months' stay. Nevertheless and in spite of this desperate situation Pizarro did not lose courage, but rather maintained determination and a firm purpose. Then their sufferings came to an end, for Almagro arrived with provisions, arms, and equipments. Thereupon Pizarro resolved to continue the explorations, although he had but thirteen men left who, however, swore rather to

die than to leave him. With the thirteen he navigated along the shores of Ecuador which belonged to the empire of the Incas and at the time was governed by Atahualpa, as the reader has already learned. The expedition cruised in the gulf of Guayaquil and touched the northern coast of Peru at various points. Here the natives received them hospitably, as was customary with the Incas, and Tumbes became their favorite port. After three years of navigation they returned to Panama, convinced that they had discovered the empire of the Incas. They came to seek reenforcements for the purpose of undertaking the conquest of Peru.

When Pizarro reported the wealth he had seen in Peru to his two associates, they were greatly encouraged. The three arrived at the opinion that Pizarro go to Spain, taking with him some evidences of his discoveries, such as gold, silver, llamas, and natives. His object was to secure protection from Emperor Charles V. Charles V. was emperor of Germany and at the same time king of Spain with the title Charles I. As we relate Spanish conquests we shall designate him with the Spanish title King Charles I. The king and the Council of Indians recognized the petition of Pizarro and conferred distinctions and prerogatives on him, his two associates, and the thirteen companions. Pizarro was made adelantado for life whereby he became governor and captain general of Peru or New Castile, as the country was called also, and he was obliged to remit to the Spanish crown the fifth part of all products of mines and of all the species and values he might obtain by transactions or plunder. Almagro was made a nobleman and commander of the fort of Tumbes. Luque became bishop of Tumbes and the thirteen companions of Pizarro were also made noblemen.

Francisco Pizarro's high ambition it now was to conquer a kingdom for himself. For this great work he had to find his own fighting force and equipment. Having returned to Panama he united 280 men and 27 horses and sailed south with

this expedition in 1531. With him were a few Dominican missionaries, among whom was *Father Valverde*; also his brother *Hernando Pizarro*, and *Sebastian de Belalcazar*, who later conquered Quito and became renowned in New Granada. The expedition arrived at the mouth of the river Guayaquil and pitched their camp on the island of Puno. Just then a war was waging between the people of that island and those of Tumbes. Pizarro intervened, favoring the latter, and thereby incurred the hatred of the people of Puno who attacked the Spaniards several times. These, however, were victorious and took much gold and silver from the islanders. Soon after, the expedition landed at Tumbes where now they were not so kindly received as at the first visit. The Tumbesites hid their treasures and attacked the expeditioners, killing a few. After two days the expedition left Tumbes and arrived at the river Piura where Pizarro founded the first town in Peru, calling it San Miguel. The author and his family were at this port in 1884 and by rail made a forty miles trip into the interior. Lingering here five months and leaving a small garrison, Pizarro led the expedition over land towards Cajamarca where *Inca Atahualpa* stayed at the time. Atahualpa had defeated his half brother Huascar at Cuzco, as we learned page 56, was now lord of the whole Inca empire, and on his return march to Quito, his capital. The Spaniards having arrived at Zaran were kindly received by the governor and the inhabitants of the place and stayed a few days. They were now 177 men, some of whom were horsemen; there also was some artillery. At this place Pizarro received *Tili Atanchi*, Atahualpa's brother, whom the emperor had sent as his ambassador to manifest his good will to the strangers and to present them with many gifts. Pizarro received the embassy with affability and sent the men back to the emperor with the announcement: "You and your soldiers are subjects of a powerful king who lives beyond the sea. We have come by the will of that king and by the will of the highest pontifex to teach

you the Christian religion. We shall treat you kindly and shall soon be in the presence of Atahualpa to protect him from his enemies." The expeditioners, however, suspected the Inca to act in bad faith; for they knew he had a large army. They advanced to Cajamarca.

Pizarro sent his brother Hernando, accompanied by Sr. Soto and the interpreter Felepillo, as ambassador to the emperor. The latter was taking hot baths at springs that were about three miles distant from Cajamarca and had an army of 32,000 men at his command. The Inca received the Spaniards kindly and, having listened to Hernando Pizarro, gave this answer: "This day I am fasting and recuperating, but tomorrow I shall go to the city to visit my friend and to hear from his mouth the mission of his monarch and of the pontiff." The men of the embassy returned to the camp in a highly excited mood; for they had seen great wealth, surprising courtesy among the people, strict obedience to their sovereign, and much order in the service. As the Incas seemed to be well organized, to have many resources and a numerous army, it appeared impossible to Francisco Pizarro and his men to accomplish the conquest in an open way by force. They thought treason to be the only way in which they could become masters of the country and possessors of its wealth. So they laid the plan to overpower the Inca at his visit, to terrorize the army by discharges of the guns, which they had never heard before, and to pursue the fleeing natives with their cavalry. For this purpose their force was divided into three divisions and put under the command of Hernando Pizarro, Hernando Soto, and Sebastian de Belalcazar who hid themselves behind some walls. It was November 16th, 1532, when that interview took place. As Atahualpa approached Cajamarca, he was seated on a golden throne which was carried on the shoulders of eighty of his noblemen, accompanied by the prominent men of his court, and escorted by the army which was divided into four divisions of 8000 men each and

commanded by General Raminahui. Entering the plaza of the city and seeing the few Spaniards who had taken their stand there, Atahualpa turned to his soldiers and said: "These men are sent by God and there is no reason to harm them, but let us show them courtesy and kindness." Then Pizarro sent Father Valverde with the interpreter to Atahualpa. After presenting himself and saluting the emperor, Valverde said: "The pope has conceded the possession of Peru to the Spanish king to convert all its inhabitants to the true religion. You, Atahualpa, must renounce the administration of the country, and if you do not, you will be forced to do so through fire and blood." Atahualpa, indignant at such unexpected intimation, threw the testament Valverde had given him with disgust away, and declared that he would neither change his religion nor become subjected to another king. Then Pizarro gave the sign and the guns belched forth and his men hurled themselves over the plaza, attacking the Inca, his noblemen and his soldiers. As the emperor had ordered his army not to fight, the soldiers did not make use of their arms, rather became thoroughly confused and were butchered like sheep in a horrible slaughter. About 5000 were slain. Pizarro tried to save the life of Atahualpa, covering him with his sword in the midst of a large concourse that surrounded him, and made him a prisoner. Having accomplished their object the Spanish soldiery engaged in plundering and found gold, silver, and precious stones in the clothes of the dead, in the temple, at the camp and the bath.

Atahualpa was taken to the Spanish camp and made secure by a pair of handcuffs. He was treated like a criminal, but he proved himself to be above his misfortune. He was then 30 years old, was robust, and well proportioned; he, however, showed in his features a certain fiery air because his eyes were colored and bloodshot. Pizarro demanded a ransom for his liberty which Atahualpa promised. Standing on his feet and lifting his right arm, he told Pizarro that he would fill

the prison room with gold as high as his hand could reach. The conqueror accepted the offer and had it made sure by official writing, adding that also the adjoining room be filled with silver and be filled twice. Then the Inca gave the order to bring all the gold and silver that the temples, palaces, and other public buildings contained. How easily the Spaniards got the treasures of Peru! While these things happened Almagro arrived with reenforcements from Panama. He and his men received their shares of the ransom values. The quantity of gold they received and distributed amounted to 17,500,000 soles and the silver to about 4,000,000. They reserved the fifth part for the crown, which was taken to Spain by Hernando Pizarro.

In spite of this immense amount of wealth that was paid for the Inca's liberty and in spite of their written promise, the Spaniards found reasons why they detained Atahualpa. Their word, their promise, having no meaning, they named a military tribunal to try, to condemn the Inca. They brought twelve charges against Atahualpa and had no legal right to any. Who can fathom the injustice, the perfidy of those proceedings? The tribunal was presided over by Pizarro and Almagro, the enemies of the accused, and the trial ended by a vote to the effect that Atahualpa suffer death, and death by burning alive on the plaza of Cajamarca. When they read the verdict to him, he said to the tribunal: "What have I done to merit death and such an awful death? What have my children done?" And turning to Pizarro he spoke thus: "Should I receive this in return from thee whom I have shown but kindness, dividing with thee my treasures, my friendship, and ordering my people to show thee respect?" Atahualpa, however, was resigned and came under the influence of Father Valverde whose endeavor it was to convert him to catholicism and thus prepare him for death. The condemned man consented to become a Catholic and therefore the priest promised to use his influence so that the verdict of burning be changed to that of

hanging. Thus Atahualpa died on the gallows August 29th, 1533. He had been a prisoner since November 16th of the previous year.

After these events Pizarro led his expedition towards Cuzco; but at Tocto he was confronted by *General Quisquis* with 12,000 veteran soldiers and by *Tili Atanchi*, Atahualpa's brother, with 6000 determined volunteers. There they engaged in a battle that became adverse to the Spaniards who, having sustained heavy losses, had to capitulate. The Incas accepted the capitulation under the condition that the empire be restored to the oldest brother of Huascar, whose name was *Manco*. As soon as Manco heard of the capitulation he summoned his advisors for a consultation. The majority of them was of the opinion that he should not trust the strangers who had just by treason killed Atahualpa, and that they be forced to comply with the promises of the capitulation. But Manco, believing the justice of his cause would give him satisfaction, resolved to put himself into Pizarro's hands, not even keeping an armed force in readiness. When Pizarro arrived at Cuzco, he sent an embassy to Manco to congratulate him to his election; and the latter came to the capital to be crowned by his Spanish friend. Manco confided sincerely in Pizarro's promises and believed himself already happy. The Spaniard, however, having become very cunning in his intrigues and frauds, for trivial reasons postponed the crowning of the Inca. Seeing himself deceived Manco succeeded in declaring himself sick and getting leave to go to Yungay where the gardens of the Incas were, to regain his health. While he was there, he planned a revolt against the Spaniards and united an army. The revolution that followed lasted three years and brought the foreign intruders often in such hard straits that their very existence was endangered. But finally, after much suffering and fighting, the tide of war went against the Incas, and Manco found it necessary to flee to the mountains. There he organized a small kingdom in 1536. Now the Spaniards were mas-

ters of the entire empire of the Incas, the kingdom of Quito being likewise captured by Belalcazar about this time.

Henceforth difficulties arose between Pizarro and Almagro which resulted in *a civil war*, in a war that brought these and other leaders to an untimely end. Hernando Pizarro had brought the fifth part of Atahualpa's ransom to the Spanish Court and King Charles I. had granted the conquerors new titles and concessions. Francisco Pizarro was made marquis, and the government of all the northern part of Peru which now received the name New Castile, was conceded to him; to Almagro the government of all the southern part which was called New Toledo, was granted, with the right to conquer Chile. But in making this division of the Peruvian territory, the exact limit between New Castile and New Toledo had not been specified and especially had it not been designated to which section Cuzco, the most important city of the Incas, should belong. Almagro claimed it belonged to his sphere of jurisdiction, while Pizarro opposed this claim. The latter, however, was successful in persuading Almagro to enter upon the conquest of Chile at once; the question concerning Cuzco might be decided in the meantime or later. Almagro organized an expedition consisting of 150 Spanish soldiers, many natives, and some negroes, and left for distant Chile. The expedition traveled via Tucuman and then took a western route across the Andes, taking the river Maule in Central Chile, the southern limit of the Inca empire, for their objective point; it is likely they traveled on the Inca thoroughfare. The campaign became expensive, for Almagro lost large numbers of men and horses on the march across the mountains. The reduced number advanced through northern Chile without opposition on the part of the natives, these being poor and peaceful, and finally they reached the banks of the Maule. As the expeditioners had found no gold or other precious values, but had met with scarcity of provisions and with poverty, they convinced their leader of the expediency to return to Peru.

Almagro, without attempting to establish himself in Chile, returned from his arduous campaign and with surprising celerity appeared before Cuzco. There Hernando and Gonzalo Pizarro, having only 200 men at their command, were besieged by a large force of natives who were under Manco. Without vacillation Almagro attacked the besieging natives and forced them to raise the siege, liberating the Pizarros out of a difficult situation. The latter repaid this service with perfidy. Tired of enduring such treatment, Almagro attacked the disputed city and occupied it, making the two Pizarros prisoners and hoping to reach an understanding with his old friend, Francisco Pizarro.

The latter had in 1535 founded a *new capital*, which was called *Lima* from the name of the Inca festival Rimac, which the natives were celebrating. There F. Pizarro resided when his brothers were made prisoners in Cuzco. He sent quite a force to assist them, but Almagro defeated his troops also and then at once marched against Lima. Having advanced as far as Mala, Francisco Pizarro met him for an interview. In order to liberate his brothers from prison, Pizarro conceded the capital, Cuzco, to Almagro, pending the settlement of the question in Spain. Sad, however, to say, the marquis, as often before, did not keep his word. Since his brothers were free he sent word to Almagro to vacate Cuzco and ordered troops to march against him, commanded by his brother Hernando, while Almagro, who was sick at the time, sent a division under General Ordonyez to fight the enemy. At Salinas in the vicinity of Cuzco it came to a battle in which the Almagrists were defeated and their general killed. Soon after sick Almagro was apprehended and put into prison. Perfidious H. Pizarro instituted a trial, had him condemned to death and beheaded. This occurred in 1538.

Now when Francisco Pizarro was in control of all Peru, he sent his brother Hernando to conquer Upper Peru, or Bolivia, which up to that time had been called Charcas. This ex-

pedition having ended Hernando went to Spain to justify himself before the king for the killing of Almagro; but he was arraigned by the Council of Indias and sent to prison for a term of 20 years. Thus Hernando Pizarro disappeared from the scene of activity. The marquis sent his brother Gonzalo as governor to Quito, because he feared that Belalcazar, who had conquered that kingdom, might separate it from his own sphere of power. Gonzalo was successful; for he defeated Belalcazar, drove him out, and himself took possession of the kingdom. Here we have the reason why Belalcazar entered upon his career in New Granada.

Gonzalo Pizarro gained much silver from the old mines of Porco and when he heard of rich deposits of gold he organized a very numerous expedition to go in search of it. In climbing the eastern Cordillera the expeditioners experienced all the horrors of a downpour in a tropical forest and instead of finding gold they met all sorts of hardships; diseases and hunger decimated their numbers. It is reported that about 4000 Indians and the larger part of the Spaniards perished. On the bank of a river that emptied in the Amazon they constructed a boat from materials they found in the forest. In this vessel which they called San Pedro, Orellana, an officer, and a few companions sailed down stream and, proceeding faster than those on land, got separated from the rest of the expedition. These men were destined to make one of the greatest discoveries of the time; for they sailed into a larger river, into the majestic Amazon. Orellana discovered thus the mightiest of streams about 2500 miles from its mouth and navigated its entire length. In a second vessel which he and his companions built and called Victoria they sailed on the Atlantic to the coast of Venezuela. This brilliant feat was accomplished in 1841.—Francisco Pizarro ordered Pedro de Valdivia to conquer Chile. His achievements and how he came to his death we shall record in the conquest of that country.

The fate that had befallen so many explorers, who had



CLIMBING THE ANDES IN A DOWNPOUR

sought and found gold and silver, who had taken cities and conquered kingdoms, also befell Francisco Pizarro. The Spanish government sent a member of the royal audiencia of Valladolid, Vaca de Castro, to Peru for the purposes of reforming Pizarro's administration and of becoming his successor after his death. But prior to the arrival of that magistrate, the friends of fallen Almagro, who were being prosecuted by the Pizarros, conspired in Lima. Sunday, June 25th, 1541, they entered the palace and assassinated Francisco Pizarro; whereupon they proclaimed Almagro's only son, a youth of 21 years, governor of Peru. Pizarro died at the age of 65 years and his remains rest until the present day in the cathedral of Lima, where the author and his wife saw them in a glass-covered casket. Pizarro had been untiring in his endeavors and labors, but was bent on fraudulent schemes. He had a firm and very valiant character, but was perfidious and revengeful. Had he been of nobler birth, doubtless he had acted better. He founded the cities of Piura, Trujillo, Lima, Huamanga, and Arequipa, organized municipal boards in them, and introduced encomiendas and mitas in Peru. As encomiendas and mitas were regulations which were in vogue in the colonial period, we shall explain the terms when we relate that period.

With the death of Francisco Pizarro young *Almagro* obtained the reins of government. But as he had been placed in power by the assassins of Pizarro, he was confronted by opposition from the beginning. The governors of Cuzco, Quito, and Popayan did not recognize his authority and offered armed forces to Vaca de Castro who had arrived by this time. The latter resolved to fight Almagro, who had retired towards the south. The encounter took place near Huamanga where the Almagrists were defeated. Young Almagro fled to Cuzco and there the authorities whom he himself had appointed, made him a prisoner and delivered him into the hands of Castro who had him suffer death on the gallows. Young Alma-

gro died at the age of 22 years. By this time all the first explorers had disappeared from the scenery. They had been short lived and had not enjoyed the wealth they had acquired. Now also it was that the rich mines of Potosi were discovered by an Indian, called Huallpa.



ANTIQUE BRIDGE.

CONQUEST OF CHILE.

1541 to 1561.

After the unsuccessful expedition of Almagro to Chile, Francisco Pizarro authorized *Peter de Valdivia* to conquer that country. This captain had shown valor and acquired military experience in many battles, having distinguished himself also in the battle of Salinas against the Almagrists. He raised funds, bought arms and horses, and engaged 150 adventurous men. He also purchased a few head of cattle, some seeds, and utensils for the purpose of founding a colony. The expedition left for Chile in 1541 and followed the route that leads through the desert of Atacama, i. e. near the seashore. After a five months' march they arrived at the densely populated valley of the Mapocho, a small mountain stream in Chile. On the banks of this river, at the foot of a hill, now called Santa Lucia, Valdivia laid the plan for the capital of the country, laying out streets and a plaza, indicating the location of a church and a jail, and assigning lots to his companions. A few houses and huts were built and Valdivia appointed a cabildo, a town-board. Santiago de Chile having thus come into existence, the board declared Valdivia governor of the country, without subjection to Peru.

In harmony with the practice of the Spanish conquerors, Valdivia demanded of Chile's natives that they consider themselves subjects of the king of Spain. They were told that God had placed his substitute, the pope, into this world, that this substitute had given all the lands and inhabitants of Chile to the Spanish king, and that, as they were the king's representatives, the lands and the people belonged to them. Although the natives could not understand such reasonings, the Spaniards considered themselves, without further ceremony, masters of their persons and properties. What about the explorers? They had not been commissioned by the king or were they provided with funds; they were adventurers who oper-

ated on their own financial responsibilities. They had to pay out of their own purses for everything they needed — for clothings, food, arms, horses, for the entire outfit — and that in times when a shirt cost \$100 and a horse \$4000. A poor man evidently could not have undertaken an expedition. For the sake of reimbursing themselves for their heavy expenses, the expeditioners established the system of distribution and encomiendas. In accordance with this system Valdivia distributed among his companions the lands and the natives who lived thereon. The Spaniards now were encomendado, i. e. intrusted with, the souls of the natives and with the duty to instruct them in the Catholic doctrines. So the natives worked their own fields for the Spaniards and were obliged to perform other labors for them, while the latter, taking little heed of the spiritual welfare of their subjects, thought mainly of enriching themselves through their sweat. Consequently the natives were subjected to hard, hard labor, and treated like slaves and beasts.

The natives of northern Chile imagined in their simplicity at first the white and bearded men to be beings of a superior race. They believed the discharges of rifles to be thunder produced by lightning, the rider and his horse to be one monster. Thus naturally a superstitious terror befell them. And then their weapons and military practices gave the Spaniards every advantage over the natives. It was not seldom that in a combat each soldier would be equal to 100 or even to 1000 natives. In spite of all this the latter, exasperated through the cruel treatment, rose against their oppressors. Near the coast they killed the Spaniards who were building a vessel and destroyed the structure. On the banks of a river they united a numerous army and while Valdivia marched against them with 90 horsemen, another chief attacked Santiago. The 50 Spaniards left in the place defended themselves desperately behind the pallisades. Seven chiefs who had been held as prisoners, were beheaded and their heads thrown out

among the assailants; but these were not dismayed thereby. The natives threw firebrands at the huts and the new town would have been destroyed, had Valdivia not returned in proper time; before him they withdrew. More than a year and a half the colonists of Santiago spent in mortal anxiety. For want of clothing, they walked almost naked; not having food, they ate the roots of the soil and these were disputed them by the natives. Only from distant Peru they could expect help. To make the cup of misery full, the rumor circulated among the natives that Francisco Pizarro, Valdivia's friend, had been assassinated and that young Almagro, his opponent, was governor of Peru. To dispel the doubt and to procure assistance, Valdivia sent emissaries to Peru. While they were gone, the colonists sowed the handful of wheat that was left and nurtured two or three chickens and pigs that had been rescued from the fire by *Ines Suarez*. This was the first Spanish woman that came to Chile. She was of valuable service to her countrymen, as she supplied them with food in the fights with the natives.

At last a ship with provisions arrived at the bay of Valparaiso. The joy was great, though the ship was eighty miles away from the colony and the bay inhospitable. The vessel had been dispatched by emissary Monroy from Peru, who himself soon arrived over land with a re-enforcement of 70 horsemen. Valdivia now ordered to found the city of Serena on the way to Peru. To explore Chile he dispatched expeditions to the south by land and by sea. As it was evident that with the forces on hand all of Chile could not be subdued, the leader sent new emissaries to Peru to procure more help. After an absence of two years Pastene returned from Peru, bringing, however, more adverse news about revolutionary movements. Then Valdivia himself went thither and rendered valuable services to Viceroy Gasca in the overthrow of Gonzalo Pizarro. To recompense him, Gasca confirmed Valdivia as governor of Chile and permitted him to organize a

new expedition. He recruited about 200 adventurers with whom he returned to Chile, proposing to carry the conquest to a successful issue. In 1549 Valdivia marched at the head of 200 soldiers towards southern Chile. Overwhelming the natives that opposed him, he reached the banks of the Biobio, which is Chile's largest river, and near its mouth he founded the city of Concepcion. The Araucanians whom we have learned to know as a very warlike nation, fell unexpectedly upon the young town, but were repulsed with great losses. In order to terrify them, Valdivia committed an act of barbarous cruelty; he ordered to cut off the noses and ears of the prisoners and set them free to carry terror among their countrymen. The daring leader crossed the Biobio and, penetrating far towards the south, founded a number of towns, among which were Angol and Valdivia.

Valdivia now considered the conquest of Chile complete and wrote so to the king of Spain; but the Araucanians did not think so. Having united their tribes and elected powerful *Caupolican* their *toqui* or leader, they opened war by destroying a fort. Valdivia marched out of Concepcion with 50 horsemen to suffocate the uprising. A young native, *Lautaro* by name, a youth of 18 years, accompanied Valdivia. When they were near the revolting district, Lautaro stealthily went to Caupolican, encouraged his countrymen, and told them how they could overcome the Spaniards and their terrifying horses. They should operate in various divisions and one division after another should enter the fight so as to tire the enemy out. The Araucanians having accepted this plan, the battle of Tucapel became a bloody and disastrous affair for the Spaniards. Valdivia and his 50 men and horses were defeated and all killed on one of the last days of 1553. The 500 Spanish colonists of Chile, being now delivered to the fury of the natives, proclaimed *Francisco de Villagran* their governor. As such he ordered the garrisons of several southern towns to vacate the places and was in this way able to unite 160 soldiers with

whom he left Concepcion in 1554 to fight the Araucanians. Crossing a range of hills near Lota, he was suddenly attacked and completely routed by Lautaro. Villagran escaped with a few companions to Concepcion, but, not having anything with which to defend that town, he retired with all the inhabitants to Santiago, a distance of 250 miles. The Araucanians destroyed the forsaken place.

Caupolican marched southward against the towns of Imperial and Valdivia, while Lautaro followed the governor. Crossing the river Maule he approached Santiago and offered his followers the plunder of the terrified capital. The governor sent 50 Spanish horsemen and 300 submissive natives of the north against Lautaro, who engaged in the battle of Petorca which remained indecisive; however Lautaro withdrew. The cunning native soon took up the campaign anew, went into camp near the present city of Curico, and spread terror among the people of the capital. Happily Villagran was successful in surprising his camp and in defeating the Araucanians. Lautaro was captured and beheaded, and his head was carried to Santiago on a bayonet.

In 1557 *Garcia Hurtado de Mendoza* came from Peru to take the place of Villagran. He was a son of the Peruvian viceroy, was sent by his father, was 22 years old, prudent, and energetic, and arrived with a brilliant following for the purpose of pacifying Chile. He went south by sea and embarked at Penco, where an attack of the Araucanians to prevent his landing, was repelled. The young governor entered Araucania from the seashore with 600 infantry men and 100 cavalry-men. The natives attacked at two different places, but were defeated each time and Caupolican was forced to withdraw, leaving many dead and wounded behind. In 1558 Don Garcia asked the people to settle again in Concepcion and other places they had formerly abandoned. Later he advanced into the still unexplored regions of the south and repelled another surprise, planned by Caupolican. Through the midst of

marshes and dense forests the expedition made its way and finally reached the archipel of Chiloe, whence Don Garcia sent explorers to the islands that are scattered along the southern shores and then returned to the north. Among those first explorers of Chiloe was the poet Alonso de Ercilla who later in life gained great celebrity through his poem "La Araucania," in which he celebrated the conquest of Chile and the heroism of the Araucanians. The latter became also a fruitful source of other poems.

Alonso de Reinoso was commander of the lately founded place Canyete which Caupolican wanted to take. A submissive native in the commander's service secretly made arrangements with Caupolican to open him the gates of the fort at the time the Spaniards took their accustomed after dinner nap; but he was traitorous and communicated the secret plan to Reinoso. So it came that the Spaniards were in readiness when Caupolian appeared with his warriors at the appointed hour; and horrible was the slaughter of the natives. Caupolican seeking refuge in a near-by forest, was soon discovered and captured. Reinoso had him executed in a fiendish manner. According to poet Ercilla the unfortunate toqui was seated on the sharpened end of a post which was made to penetrate his intestines.

Apparently Chile was quiet now and Governor Mendoza dedicated himself to labors of peace. He sent expeditions across the eastern Andes mountains to explore the regions beyond where his captains founded the cities of Mendoza and San Juan in the present Argentine Republic. He had just begun to install good government in the country which he had pacified, when it became known that the new king of Spain, Philip II., son and successor of Charles I., had reappointed Francisco de Villagran governor of Chile. Without delay Don Garcia embarked for Peru. This event, which happened in 1561, is considered as the end of Chile's conquest and the beginning of its colonial period.

DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST OF THE
LA PLATA REGIONS.*1516 to 1618.*

Americo Vespucio, a Florentine naval astronomer in Spanish services, made first two voyages to the new world in Spanish vessels, one with Admiral Hejeda in 1499 and the other with Admiral Pinzon, and then two voyages in Portuguese ships to the Brazilian coasts. Thereupon he became grand pilot of Spain and in this position he wrote a narrative on the recent discoveries. A copy of this narrative came to Germany where Martin Waldseemueller of Freyburg, Baden, translated it for a bookseller of St. Diez in Lorraine. According to Humboldt, Waldseemueller proposed that the new world be called *America* in memory of the author of the narrative which was called *Cartas Americas*, and that Americo Vespucio had nothing to do with the naming of the new world. Afterwards this name was generally accepted by geographical writers and even the Spaniards and Portuguese adopted it.

Vespucio was succeeded in the office of a grand pilot by *John Diez de Solis*, who soon got an expedition in readiness to explore the South American continent, his main purpose being to find a way to the Pacific by sea. Solis commanded the fleet and was accompanied by his brother-in-law, F. Torres. In 1516 the expedition reached the river which now is called La Plata. As in reality it is a bay, Solis believed it to be a passage to the Pacific and on account of its sweet water he called it *Mar Dulce*, i. e. sweet sea. Ascending the river to the island *Martin Garcia*, Solis intended to take possession of the lands and disembarked with a few men. However, the natives who had observed them, were on the lookout, attacked and killed them with darts, only three escaping. F. Torres, the brother-in-law, was terrified, took the command of the fleet, and returned to Spain.

In 1520 *Hernando de Magellan*, a Portuguese mariner

who also was in Spanish services, was sent to the same river to find the passage which the unfortunate Solis had not discovered. He arrived at the place where Montevideo now stands and dispatched a small boat up the river, which reached the mouth of the Uruguay. Magellan was convinced that they were not on a passage to the Pacific and continued, therefore, to follow a southerly course, navigating along the coast of Patagonia. While the expedition spent the winter months in the bay of San Julian, the men observed the large, clumsy feet of the native Tehuelches, for which reason they gave them the present name Patagonians. When next spring they continued the voyage, they discovered the straits that bear Magellan's name. The discoverer had the good fortune to steer into the open sea which Balboa had discovered at Panama, into the ocean which he found to be calm and which he, therefore, called pacific. He crossed the ocean as far as the Philippine Islands where he landed and where he was killed by the natives. Sebastian Elcano, captain of the Victoria, now took the command of the three vessels that were left from the five which had sailed from Spain. He continued in a westerly direction, visited the Molucca Islands, crossed the Indian ocean, sailed around South Africa, and reached Spain three years after the departure. The Victoria was the only vessel that returned, of the 265 men that had left Spain only 17 survived. Sebastian Elcano in the Victoria furnished the first practical proof that the earth is round. He gave a report of the discoveries of Magellan and of the wealth of the islands visited. The result was that other expeditions were organized in the course of time.

In 1525 *Sebastian Gabot* set sail to verify the discoveries of Magellan; but arriving at the La Plata he resolved to stay there and to explore that region. He ascended the Uruguay river as far as the conflux of the San Juan, where he found one of the companions of Solis whom the natives had held all these ten years. Then Gabot explored the shores of present

Buenos Aires, ascended the Parana river to the place where the Tercero empties its waters into it, and there constructed the fort which he called Sancti-Spiritus. Later he ascended the Paraguay river also. Among the Indians who inhabited these, especially the lower, regions were many who wore feathers of various colors, beautified with pieces of silver and gold, the first predominating. For this reason Gabot renamed the lower waters, changing the name Mar Dulce into that of La Plata (the silver). The La Plata river is formed by the Parana and the Uruguay. Having been disappointed in his expectation concerning reenforcements from Spain, the commander started on the homeward trip, leaving a garrison of 170 men in fort Sancti Spiritus. After Gabot's departure the native chief Manegore became covetous; he wanted to win for himself Lucia Miranda, the wife of a soldier of the garrison. So one night he entered the fort with his men and assassinated all the Spaniards who were there then, sparing the women and children. Those who had been absent and survived left the ruins and went to Brazil and later to Spain, where they arrived in 1530. Fort Sancti Spiritus had been the first establishment on Argentine soil.

The Spanish government at this time was thoroughly engaged in Mexican affairs and for a number of years left the South American countries to themselves; however, the capture of Cuzco in 1533 drew the king's attention again to the southern continent. As he did not have the funds to equip expeditions, he accepted the offer of *Don Peter de Mendoza* to meet such an expense. This gentleman got fourteen ships in readiness in which 2650 persons embarked, and also procured the first horses to propagate the species in the new world. The expensive expedition left Spain for the river La Plata in 1534 and in February of the following year they founded a town, which they called Buenos Aires, i. e. good aires or breezes. The natives of the vicinity were kind towards the strangers and supplied them with food. But when

the Spaniards began to treat them unjustly, they broke off all relations with them. The consequence was that Mendoza was embarrassed by the lack of the most necessary provisions and resolved to attack the natives by force. However, these routed the Spaniards and at the close of June of the same year attacked Buenos Aires and burned the larger part of the town. Mendoza then left the place and, being tired of the constant resistance of the natives, departed for Spain and died on the way. When the king heard of these sad occurrences, he sent Alonso de Cabrera to bring help and reenforcement to those who had stayed in the La Plata region.

In the interval Ayolas became the leader of the remnant of Spaniards and went north, ascending the rivers Parana and Paraguay up to the tributary Pilcomayo, where he founded a town which he called Asuncion and which later became the capital of Paraguay. Leaving Asuncion in charge of *Sr. Irala*, Ayolas went west, penetrating into Chaco to place himself into communication with the conquerors of Peru. Later when he was on his return trip to Asuncion, Ayolas was waylaid and murdered by the Indians, running the fate of unfortunate Solis. Irala had dedicated himself in the mean time to the organization and welfare of the colony of Asuncion, and as soon as the tragic end of Ayolas became known the colonists elected him their governor; for he was the man suitable for the occasion and enjoyed the confidence and good will of the people. His first endeavor was to strengthen the Asuncion colony by organizing a municipal board, by building a church, and by attracting to the colony all that was left from the Buenos Aires disaster. Then he divided the natives into comiendas and apportioned them to the colonists, bringing thus the colony into a state of prosperity. In 1542 Irala was replaced by *Cabeza de Vaca*. This gentleman had received concessions from the king and had left Cadiz with 400 soldiers in four vessels. Having arrived at ruined Buenos Aires Cabeza de Vaca marched with his troops over land to Asuncion, a dis-

tance of 650 miles, without losing a single man. On account of the rash and imprudent acts of this governor, the colonists opposed him vehemently. Later he was deposed and sent to Spain.

Irala was again proclaimed governor. He may be truly called the founder of Spanish regime in that section of the continent. During his second term the first wool-bearing animals, sheep and pacos, were introduced into the colony and the Argentine city of Santiago was founded. Irala died at an advanced age, loved and respected by all. A man by the name of Zarate was appointed governor of the La Plata territory by the Peruvian viceroy and went to Spain to obtain the king's confirmation. During his journey *John de Garay* became prominent and founded the city of Santa Fe in 1573. Zarate returned from Spain with 500 men, 400 cows, so many sheep, 500 goats, and 300 horses. At his arrival at the La Plata Garay went to receive him and to supply him with provisions and forage. When Zarate arrived at Asuncion, he assumed the attitude which Cabeza de Vasa had displayed before him. He became very dominating, recalled what others had introduced, whereby he attracted the hatred of the colonists and soon ran the risk of losing his life. He made his testament, named for his successor the man who would marry his daughter, Senorita Juana, and appointed Garay as executor of the testament. Zarate died, hated by all. Garay found that the daughter had entered into love relations with *Torres de Vera* who married her. Torres having thus become governor, appointed Garay as his subaltern. Garay founded two towns, one he named Villa Rica and the other Santiago de Gerez. Then he went to the shores of Buenos Aires and in 1580 definitively founded the city that bears this name. In his battles with the natives of the vicinity he won an important victory, whereupon they became willing to make peace and he was able to organize the government of the new city. Desirous to return to Asuncion, he chose to make his way through the ter-

ritory that lies between the rivers Parana and Uruguay and there Garay and the 39 men and women who followed him, were attacked and butchered by the Minnames. Garay had been one of the brightest personages of the conquest. Governor Torres became desirous to appropriate to himself the horses of the colony which constituted about the only real wealth of the country at that time. The colonists brought complaints before the audiencia and were successful, whereupon Torres de Vera became dissatisfied with affairs, resigned his position, and embarked for Spain.

Besides the recorded expeditions which were undertaken to explore the Argentine territory, others were set on foot by Peru and Chile. The first viceroys of Peru recompensed the officers who assisted them in their Peruvian enterprises, by giving them distinct commissions to carry out in the territory of Tucuman, the northwest section of present Argentina. In 1542, for instance, Diego de Rojas undertook an exploring expedition in that section and advanced as far as the Parana river. He succumbed to the hardships, his subaltern was assassinated by his soldiers, and the rest of the expeditioners returned to Peru. Eight years later Nunyez de Prado was ordered by Viceroy La Gasca of Peru again to take up the explorations which Rojas had begun. In 1550 Prado marched out with 400 men and in the territory governed by the native chief Tucumanao he founded the city of Barco. A number of expeditions also started from Chile in the latter half of the 16th century which resulted in the founding of cities and towns in the mountainous regions and on the plains of Argentina; such as Mendoza, San Juan and others.

After the departure of Torres de Vera the people of Asuncion agreed to elect *Hernandarias* to the office of governor. This gentleman was the first native-born man, or creole, who was elected to that position and he held the office three terms between the years 1591 and 1618, the first lasting three years.

During his second term Hernandarias undertook an expedition southward through Patagonia and reached the strait of Magellan by land. There the natives overpowered him and his men and made them prisoners. The governor, however, freed himself, turned upon his enemies with the utmost boldness, routed them, and liberated his companions. He added six hundred miles to the conquered territory. In 1615 Hernandarias was elected governor for the third time. Revolutionary movements had been going on in favor of the natives and were concluded by the governor in the right sense, by conceding them the rights of citizens. At his petition Paraguay received her own government, independent of that of La Plata, i. e. Argentina. Hernandarias died in Santa Fe of Argentina, full of merits and highly honored. With his death in 1618 the first period of Argentine and Paraguayan history terminates.

The colony of Asuncion succeeded best in the beginning of Spanish operations in the La Plata regions. From there expeditions were undertaken to found cities on the banks of the Paraguay and Parana rivers; and even Buenos Aires received its permanent existence from Asuncion. However, no operations were at that time undertaken in the regions east of the Uruguay river which forms the limits between Argentina and Uruguay. Uruguay, therefore, and the city of Montevideo play as yet no part in this period; Montevideo was founded as late as 1726. The naming of its locality, however, had an early date. When Magellan started out on his world-renowned voyage in 1520, when he entered the waters which he called Mar Dulce, sailing along the eastern or Uruguayan shores, a Portuguese sailor saw a hill for the first time since they had left Spain and exclaimed: "Monte vide eu!" From this expression which means "I saw a hill," the name Montevideo was constructed. Hence the locality bore the name 200 years before the city was founded, during which time, however, some colonial endeavors were started there.

DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST OF BRAZIL.

1499 to 1577.

When *Alonso de Hejeda* had explored the northern coasts of South America in 1499 he navigated in a southeasterly direction until he reached the mouth of the Amazon and passed even beyond it. *Hejeda* must, therefore, be considered as the true discoverer of Brazil. In 1500 *Peter Alvares Cabral*, a Portuguese marshal, being on his voyage to India, accidentally was carried to these same shores, landed at a place he called Seguro, near the present city of Bahia, and took possession of the land in the name of his king. Cabral then continued his trip to India. The government of Portugal was kept busy with conquests in the East Indias and apparently did not think of South America. Nevertheless, diverse expeditioners occasionally visited the eastern coasts to gather a certain dye-wood which grows there very abundantly and which looks like burning wood. As burning wood is called braza in Spanish the dye-wood was called brazil from its color, a name which afterwards was applied to the whole country.

When the King of Portugal, John III., learned that the Spanish government intended to found establishments in the La Plata region, he equipped five ships, manning them with 400 soldiers, and put them at the command of *Martin Alfonso de Sousa*, with the order to occupy the coasts of which Marshal Cabral had taken possession. De Sousa having landed where now Pernambuco stands, dispatched one of his captains to explore the northern coast up to the river Amazon, while he followed the southern coast as far as the beautiful bay of Rio de Janeiro. Here he ordered the construction of two brigs which should go to the La Plata to plant colonies. Having been opposed by a storm which capsized his main vessel, he sent his brother Peter Lopez to reconnoiter the La

Plata shores, while he founded the colony San Vicente on the Atlantic coast.

King John III., fearing certain projects of French merchants who planned to establish themselves in Brazil, concluded to divide the country into twelve captaincies-general, whose governments he intrusted to various Portuguese gentlemen. Some captaincies, as e. g. San Visente, prospered and their wealth developed with the cultivation of the sugar cane. But the long distances that separated them from one another and the obstinate resistance of the natives, hindered the progress of some; wherefore the king repealed his former action and in 1549 organized all the captaincies into one general government. *Thomas de Sousa*, a man who had distinguished himself by his talents and valor displayed in Asia and Africa, was appointed governor. He left for Brazil with an expedition of six vessels, 600 volunteers, and 400 pardoned criminals. Also the first six Jesuits who came to Brazil accompanied him. Having landed at the bay of Bahia, Thomas de Sousa founded the city which bears that name. There he found a countryman who since years had resided on that coast and who, bearing the name caramuru, i. e. *creator of fire*, was regarded by the natives as a supernatural being. With the aid of this man and of the Jesuits Sousa could give stability to the colony which progressed rapidly and increased in numbers by new arrivals. In 1550 Bahia became the seat of a bishop and for a long time it was the capital of Brazil. The government of Sousa, though he was prudent, was disturbed by bloody wars with the Indians. After him *Duarte da Acosta* was appointed governor.

In France the followers of Calvin were persecuted and thought of seeking a place of refuge in Brazil. *Nicolas Durand de Villegaignon*, a gentleman among the Calvinists, organized an expedition in 1555 and came to build a fort on one of the small islands of the Rio de Janeiro bay, giving the surrounding country the name of Anartic France. Two years later an additional force of 300 Calvinists under the orders of a neph-

ew of Villegaignon was sent by the French king to the same place. However, when discord arose and spread among the Calvinists, the leader left a garrison of 100 men in the fort and embarked for Europe.

The Portuguese Court believed that Duarte da Acosta had not conducted himself with propriety and in his stead appointed *Men de Saa* governor of Brazil, with the order to expel the French. The Calvinists were attacked and found themselves obliged to seek an asylum on the continent; here they held their ground for some time against the attacks of the Portuguese. However, when the latter had been re-enforced, they defeated the French and obliged them to embark for Europe in 1567. After the expulsion of the French the Portuguese founded a city on the bay of Rio de Janeiro which they gave the name of San Sebastian in honor of their new king, which, however, the inhabitants afterwards named after the bay. The conquest of Brazil, however, was not complete until tenacious wars with the natives had been waged for many years. The country was for some time again divided and this time into two large captaincies, whose capitals were Bahia and Rio de Janeiro. However, four years later it was reunited under one government at whose head *Louis de Brito E Almeido* was placed who in 1577 established his residence in Bahia. Only in 1773 Rio de Janeiro became the capital of Brazil definitely.

PERIOD V

COLONIAL TIMES

1544 to 1821

COLONIAL PERIOD OF PERU.

1544 to 1821.

DURING the colonial period the South American countries were governed by Spain and Portugal. The governments of these countries sent their representatives and officers to the various colonies to manage and control the same and to enforce the laws and ordinances that were issued by them. Spain naturally made Peru the principal seat of her South American government; for Peru was of higher importance than any other colony, having had the best native government and having yielded the most wealth. Let us then keep in mind that the other Spanish South American colonies were largely controlled by the government of Peru and let us primarily acquaint ourselves with her colonial policy. Towards the middle of the 16th century King Charles I. thought it best to raise Peru to the rank of a viceroyship. The king took this step because through responsible and just persons he had received information about the atrocities committed by the conquerors—the cruel treatment they meted out to the natives—and about the continual quarrels and strifes in which the Spaniards themselves lived. He, therefore, sent *Blasco Nunez de Vela* as first viceroy to Lima, a man of rank, of firm character and integrity, and inflexible in the discharge of his duties, but of little experience and practical ability. He also established, in Lima, a royal audiencia which was the highest court of justice and served at the same time as a sort of council of state. And finally the king had a code of laws formulated by which Peru and the other colonies should be governed. In these he conceded the same rights to the natives as the Spaniards enjoyed, declared them free, and prohibited the mita.

Before we proceed with the historical events, let us make an endeavor to understand the terms encomienda and mita, as they stand for institutions that vitally characterized Spanish colonial life. *The encomiendas* provided for the partition of the lands and the native people and all they had, among the conquerors and their companions. These then did not receive simply their part of the booty that was taken in the conquests, but also the lands and all there was on them. Each encomienda included one or more towns and many of them were as large as an actual province. The encomenderos, i. e. the Spaniards in their possessions, were feudal lords in their respective encomiendas. Thus conditions of the Middle Ages were rooted into the South American life and they have not been obliterated entirely up to the present day. Those Spanish lords exercised jurisdiction over their native subjects and the right to demand contributions from them, contributions besides and above the taxes that were collected from the natives for the Spanish Court. The encomenderos on their part were under the obligations to protect their subjects and to make them observe a Christian way of living; but they were loathe to do either and used the natives to enrich themselves.

— *The mita* was a forced labor which the Spaniards demanded from the natives for a definite time, generally for one year. For this service a number of natives was annually assorted in every encomienda, as many as were necessary, to perform the labors which the proprietors wanted to have done. They labored principally in mines and on cane and coca plantations and earned two reales or about 12 cents a day; they also worked on Sundays. Besides this labor, the natives were obliged to serve under the name of pongos in the houses of the supervisors, the priests, and the native chiefs. It is estimated that there were about 60,000 natives continually engaged in this last named service. This mita the king determined to abolish.

As soon as the Spaniards took notice of the king's ordi-

nances and saw that they would be losers, in case the laws were enforced, they became alarmed. The uneasiness reached its height when they noticed that Nunyez de Vela began to set the poor natives free. Then there was an uprising in Cuzco and the revolters put Gonzalo Pizarro at the head of the movement which quickly spread all over Peru. To suppress the rising tide the viceroy committed bloody acts in Lima and when members of the audiencia conspired against him he discharged them. He then sent a report of the happenings to the home government. Gonzalo marched at once to the capital and demanded that the government be delivered to the audiencia which accepted it. Nunyez de Vela was made a prisoner and sent to Spain. Having left Lima he managed that those who had him in charge allowed him to escape. Presently he appeared in the north of Peru where he raised a small army to attack the revolters. When Gonzalo heard of this he determined to meet him in battle and marched with his force until he came into the vicinity of Quito where the engagement took place and where fate turned against Vela, for he was defeated and killed. Gonzalo Pizarro returned to Lima, entered the capital triumphantly, and then sent a commission to Spain to give account of what had happened and simultaneously to petition the king to appoint him viceroy; for as such he already had begun to act. But before this commission reached Madrid, the king had been advised by the Lima audiencia concerning Nunyez de Vela's imprisonment and had sent *Peter de La Gasca*, a clergyman, to save the situation. This man was known for his sagacity, prudence, and learning.

La Gasca, having arrived at Panama where he remained some time, communicated his mission to Gonzalo Pizarro. Employing his ability in a somewhat secret manner, he succeeded in bringing a change of opinion in Lima about and in inducing Gonzalo's soldiers to desert him. In the meanwhile a rival of Gonzalo Pizarro, Zenteno by name, revolted against him at Cuzco. Gonzalo now found himself between two en-

emies, Zenteno, in Cuzco and La Gasca coming from Panama. Thus he resolved to withdraw into the mountains, first to fight the one and then the other. He successfully routed Zenteno's force and then went to Cuzco to await La Gasca's troops. In the vicinity of this city the opposing forces met in a desperate struggle. The fortune of battle adhered to the new governor's banners, Gonzalo was made a prisoner, as was also his counselor, Carbajal. Both were beheaded. Carbajal's body was cut into four sections, which were hung up in the four roads that lead out of Cuzco, while the heads of the two were taken to Lima and exposed to public view.

Peter de La Gasca governed quietly for about two years, during which time he regulated the tribute, the contribution which the natives paid. He also diminished the forced work to which they were subjected, but did not abolish it entirely for fear of new revolts. Having thus far accomplished his mission, La Gasca returned to Spain as poor as he had come, not taking with him one mite.

During *an interregnum* the royal audiencia took charge of the government and, desirous to employ their authority in favor of the natives, they decreed the abolition of the mita. This measure aroused the passions of those who had profited by this unjust labor and they again conspired in Lima, in Cuzco, and in Potosi. Deep dissatisfaction ran once more through the whole country. In the capital the conspiracy was suppressed, but not in the other cities; another war broke out. The leaders of the revolution turned one against another; many assassinations were committed, many battles fought; anarchy reigned throughout the south of Peru. However, at last the audiencia and the new viceroy, Andrew Hurtado de Mendoza, who arrived at this time, were successful in reestablishing order and in making the authority of the laws to triumph. With this re-arrangement of orderly conditions the civil wars came to a close that had been carried on since the

rupture of Francisco Pizarro and Diego de Almagro, i. e. since 1536.

We shall not enumerate the many viceroys who managed the affairs of Peru and supervised the other colonies, but we must present some leading characters and the principal events that transpired in this period of Peruvian history. The vice-royalty was created in 1544 and continued to exist in Peru 277 years. Among the men who held this exalted position some were counts, some marquises, two princes, two archbishops, one duke, and one bishop. The arrival of a new viceroy at Lima was celebrated with a pomp and magnificence which are not any more in use in our times. The functionaries were respected and reverenced by the people as highly as the king himself, and they displayed a gorgeous splendor and grandeur. Still today the Peruvian presidents preserve the bright and costly uniforms of those times, the royal coach, and the outfitts of the palace guards. Many viceroys united political ability with nobility of character and unflinching honesty, while others made themselves useful by promoting public works, which are in existence still today and are evidences of great skill.

The natives made various *attempts* during this period to restore the empire of the Incas. Already the third viceroy, Hurtado de Mendoza, had to take steps to prevent such attempts. He invited a descendant of the Inca emperors to come to Lima, obliged him to renounce his rights as an Inca in favor of the Spanish crown, and assigned to him a province with a fertile valley as recompense and for his maintenance. But the Inca died from remorse and grief three years later. Another viceroy condemned to death the last son of an Inca on account of the supposed crime of having desired to re-establish the Inca empire. But in spite of these precautions serious disturbances broke out towards the middle of the 17th century. The natives of Tucuman in Argentina and of La Paz arose. They were led by Bohorgues who also claimed to

be a descendant of the Peruvian emperors; but the movement was suffocated by the viceroy who at that time governed Peru. Three other seditions of the natives followed and failed. However in 1780 a more dangerous outbreak occurred in the province of Tinta, where the natives proclaimed Tupac Amaru their Inca and where multitudes of natives enlisted under the banners of the revolutionists. They made great headway, conquering one province after the other until six were in their possession. But when they were attacked simultaneously by the armies of Lima and of Buenos Aires, they came to naught, mainly on account of lack of military discipline and of arms. The natives were routed, Tupac Amaru fell into the hands of the Spaniards, and inhuman vengeance was meted out to him. His tongue was cut out and he had to see how his wife, his children one after the other, and some of his principal chiefs were slain before him; then while still alive he was cut into four pieces. The natives became infuriated at such acts of cruelty and again revolted.

In the year 1570 a *Tribunal of Inquisition* was established in Lima, which flourished in the succeeding centuries and which purposed to suppress every free thought and independent sentiment in the colonies. This tribunal was to judge every one who was accused of not professing the Roman Catholic faith or of entertaining a thought or belief which the church called heresy, or one who had committed a profanation against the church or who possessed one of the prohibited books. The list of prohibited Protestant books, including the Bible, and books of liberal contents increased to 5000 volumes in the course of time. The tribunal sent its emissaries throughout Peru and the other colonies, i. e. Chile, Argentina, Ecuador, New Granada etc., to spy out offending persons and such persons were readily singled out and announced by devoted adherents of the established church. Such persons were either punished with spiritual afflictions or were required to pay fees, or were taken to Lima and thrown into the towers or dungeons

of the Inquisition. Often death was decreed. In the public executions which they called "outos de fe," the victims were burned to death. It is reported that in a course of twenty years the tribunal undertook five autos de fe and that in one of these holocausts forty persons were reduced to ashes. In this way the church kept the word of God, Protestant thoughts, and liberal sentiments out of the Spanish colonies. It succeeded in its domination until the people themselves broke the chains of fanaticism and despotism, as we shall learn in the next period.

Trade and Commerce stayed in their infancy, being hampered by greed and monopoly. The encomenderos had obtained the privilege to sell to the natives of their districts all the merchandises they might need, which concession had been granted them by the government in good faith in an early season of the colonial times. But many encomenderos came to abuse this concession; for they sold to the country folks such defective, worthless goods, as could not be disposed of in the cities, and that at high prices. By and by hucksters went into the interior of the country to trade their stuff for the values of the natives. Foreign commerce was regulated by rigid laws. As foreigners were prohibited by law to immigrate into Peru and the other colonies, so also was trading with foreigners forbidden; thus the colonial dealers could do business only with Spanish merchants. This monopoly was carried to such an extent that the entire commerce of the colonies was in the hands and control of certain commercial houses of Spain, and these fixed the prices. There was also a strict regulation of industries and even of agriculture. So for instance it was prohibited in the colonies to cultivate such plants and grains as were raised in Spain, so that many necessities of life were brought from the homeland and agriculture in the colonies was neglected. At this time already the fruitful fields and the irrigation viaducts of the Incas came into neglect in Peru. The law protected the exploitation of the mines only, and the

precious metals, gold and silver, were shipped to Spain in exchange of the products of agriculture and the merchandises of the homeland. We repeat, Spanish merchants had the exclusive control of this commerce and the colonists had to purchase at the prices the speculators demanded.

Besides Mexico, Peru was doubtless *the richest Spanish colony*. By land the Peruvians traded with the colonies of the La Plata region, whither they sent from Arekipa, whiskey, wines, oil, and sugar, and from Cuzco dressgoods and clothing, amounting to the value of about 2,000,000 pesos annually. By sea Peru traded with Chile, which country in return sent products, mainly wheat, to the amount of 6,000,000 pesos. Wheat was the principal product of Chile of which it raised an annual crop of 650,000 bushels. Also with the colony of New Granada the Peruvian viceroyship carried on a trade both by land and by sea; by land via Quito, by sea to Guayaquil and Panama. To Spain Peru sent, besides precious metals, a small quantity of vicuna wool and of cascarillas, as these were not found in the homeland. Comparing imports with exports an annual difference of more than 1,000,000 pesos resulted against Peru. — Towards the close of the colonial times the annual income of Peru amounted to 9,000,000 pesos, one-third, or 3,000,000 pesos, of which was received from the commerce with the adjacent colonies. The 6,000,000 pesos of Peruvian revenue were received 1. from the personal contributions of the natives, which amounted to 8 pesos per head; 2. from custom house receipts which were paid for all the articles of commerce; 3. from the fifth part of the mineral products which was paid by the owners of private mines; 4. from the taxes paid for the sale of strong drinks; such as, cider, whiskey etc.; and 5. from taxes paid for such articles as stamped paper, cards, tobacco, and quicksilver. Of the 6,000,000 pesos thus received the fifth part was sent to Spain, as that part was due the crown; 4,500,000 pesos generally sufficed to supply the needs of the country; some remittances were sent to

Chile and other colonies to help them; and but a small sum went as a surplus into the treasury. But when towards the close of this period the revolutionists fought for the independence of the colonies, the viceroys made loans and contracted debts which soon amounted to 18,000,000 pesos.

Peru had many *rich mines*. Those of Potosí were early discovered and proved to be immensely rich. They are located on Bolivian territory and are reported to have yielded 600,000,-000 dollars worth of silver. Also the silver mines of Pasco in Peru are said to have been fabulously rich. The San Antonio mines furnished a daily income of 1400 pesos. The celebrated mine of Reantalla yielded 2500 pesos per box. Half a dozen other mines produced about 1,000,000 dollars a year.

During her colonial life Peru was, besides the revolts, endangered from without by English and Dutch *pirates* and from within by *earthquakes*. Pirates appeared on the west coast, plundered towns and cities and robbed whatever they could lay their hands on. In 1577 the English sailor Drake, the terror of the colonists, sailed into the Pacific and plundered ships and towns on the coasts of Chile, Peru, and Mexico, came as far north as the bays of San Francisco and even of Van Couver of which he took possession in the name of the English queen. Laden with plunder he crossed the Pacific and the Indian oceans, doubled Cape of Good Hope and returned to England, being the second to circumnavigate the globe. A little later the Englishman, Cavendish, repeated those depredations and also returned to England laden with treasures. Dutch pirates likewise appeared and continued their incursions until the middle of the 17th century. The Peruvian viceroys equipped fleets to protect the Spanish ports and to pursue the corsairs.

Destructive earthquakes have imperiled life and property on South America's west coast quite frequently. The memorable earthquake of 1746 destroyed Lima, submerged Callao,

Lima's port, below the waters of the Pacific, and ruined a number of other towns. Viceroy Velasco, who governed at that time, rebuilt Lima and laid the first stone to the fort of new Callao; he also founded the town of Miraflores. Earthquakes are on that west coast a constant cause of alarm, for they are destructive of property and of human life.

The area of Peru underwent changes at various times. Until the year 1718 it had extended towards the north up to Panama; but in that year the Spanish government separated some provinces in the north from it and with them created the viceroyship of New Granada, in which the presidency of Quito was included. In 1773 the Spanish government decreed that Chile which until then had been a dependency of the Peruvian viceroyship, become a captaincy-general and independent of Peru, with the understanding, however, that the governing captain-general consult with the Peruvian viceroy in military matters. Four years later, in 1777, the viceroyship of Buenos Aires was created, including in its area some territories which hitherto had belonged to Peru, namely Puno and Upper Peru (Bolivia). In 1796 a re-arrangement of the Peruvian territory was undertaken, whose divisions until then had been encomiendas. An encomienda, as the reader will know, was a district which a conqueror or explorer had received for his services. In the above named year Peru was divided into intendencias and these were subdivided into departamentos; an intendencia is equal to a province. Towards the close of the colonial times, i. e. at the beginning of the 19th century the northern province of Guayaquil and the southeastern intendencia of Puno were incorporated into the Peruvian territory. Thus Peru's greatest length extended through $21\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of latitude or it was almost 1500 miles. Lima, the capital, having had 23,554 inhabitants in 1610, constantly increased in population in the two following centuries and was the largest city of South America during the colonial period. It had a palace for the viceroy and another for the

archbishop, more than one hundred temples, twenty-four convents and seven monasteries, twelve hospitals, one university consisting of four colleges, and a few elementary schools in the convents. The total population of Peru at the close of this period, was 1,500,000 persons, one-half of whom were natives and more than 40,000 were negroes. What had become, in the bygone centuries, of the seven to eight million Inca Peruvians, who, according to the historian La Rosa Toro, had lived and prospered on the same soil before the Spanish invasion?

Though *the colonial life* was quite plain, the people used costly utensils. The service of the table throughout was of silver, not only among the rich, but also among the middle classes, as clay and porcelain dishes were scarcely in use. Also natives, though they lived but in huts, ate their food from massive silver dishes. Even the most common household utensils and the tires of carriage wheels were made of solid silver. In the houses of the rich, water for making mate was boiled in silver pots and the mate was served in silver cups. Mate, which was imported from Paraguay, or chocolate were taken in the evening and fresco or ptisan in the morning. The dress of those times was plain and odd. The ladies liked profuse extravagance and embellishment, especially the senyoritas of Lima.

The domestic *entertainments* consisted in card playing and dancing, and the public *diversions* in bull and cock fights, in theatrical plays, and in the gorgeous processions in which the church exhibited her visible glory. However, Madrid was the center of attraction, and they looked upon it as upon the home city. The Peruvian colonists, consequently, instead of loving their true home, their native city and country, admired the residential city of their sovereign with a deep regard. Hence they received the royal package from Madrid with tollings of bells and great merry-making; this package was the mail which brought the important news of the health of the king.

COLONIAL TIMES OF CHILE.

1561 to 1810.

To carry the conquest of Chile to completion, cost Spain more money and men than the conquest of the rest of America. The Araucanians never submitted to foreign control for fear of being suppressed and of groaning under the hard lashes of the Spanish taxmasters and encomenderos, as their countrymen of northern Chile did. They loved liberty and independence and preferred death to the yoke. The Araucanians again and again renewed the war, though in the course of centuries their primitive vigor weakened and the war degenerated into pillage. Being already masters of the horse, they undertook raids into Spanish settlements, robbing and destroying all they could find. The Spaniards in turn invaded the territory of the natives to recover their losses and to make captives whom they might oblige to work on their encomiendas. This kind of war became profitable to the Spaniards and it was in a sense in their interest to prolong it.

In 1598 the Araucanians arose in great strength. The famous Spanish soldier *Alonso de Sotomayor* who had come from Spain with 600 warriors, was not able in an obstinate warfare of nine years to overcome them. Then, after those stormy years, a calm set in and, trusting in the apparent quietude, the new governor undertook a journey through Araucania, accompanied by 60 soldiers, 3 priests, and a number of servants. One night the company lodged in a place called Curavalva; the Araucanians of the vicinity surprised them at dawn and killed the governor and his following with the exception of but two who escaped to tell the story. This became the signal for a new general uprising of the Araucanian tribes under the leadership of Paillamacu and Pelantaru. The Spaniards were in this horrible war forced to abandon the seven towns which they had built south of the Biobio and had

to see them destroyed; Villarica, Osorno, Valdivia, and flourishing Imperial fell after memorable sieges. Captain J. R. Lisperger succumbed in Boroa with more than 160 soldiers. Then *Garcia Ramon*, a great military hero, became governor and arrived with a division of 3000 soldiers to subdue the horrible Araucanians. But these, being elated with victory, repelled every attack and defeated Ramon and his army.

To pacify Chile the new king of Spain, *Philip III.*, who reigned from 1598 to 1621, thought of a new scheme. Instead of unsuccessful wars with all their losses in men and money, he thought the audiencia might assist in introducing peaceful measures. He ordered the audiencia which for some time had held sessions in Concepcion, again to return to Santiago. This tribunal was composed of one regent, one senior, three judges, and one attorney general, and it was presided over by the governor who for that reason was also called president. The duties of the audiencia were not simply to administer justice to those who were in litigation, but also to assist in the higher functions of government and in matters of war. They sent a commission to the Araucanians to consult with them, but the counselors accomplished nothing in the effort of pacifying those people. Then *Louis de Valdivia*, a Jesuit, believed missionary endeavors to be more effective than the arm of the soldier or the council of the jurist. According to his plan the Spanish troops should be prohibited to cross the Biobio and the submission of the natives be intrusted to missionaries who should accomplish the desired end through mission work and preaching. Valdivia went to Spain in 1612 to lay his ideas before the king and returned to Chile with the authority to put them into practice; this, however, should be done in harmony with Governor *Alonso de Ribera*. Military men and encomenderos opposed this project, because they believed it to be ineffective and even harmful; thus severe disputes took place in this matter. Nevertheless the plan of Valdivia was acted upon and the Araucanians accepted the new arrange-

ment. For some time the Jesuits labored quietly, but when one day a few women of chief Ancanamum left him to seek refuge in a near-by mission station, the storm again broke loose. The chief requested the missionaries to return his wives; but the Jesuits were not willing to surrender more than one. Ancanamum took revenge, had three Jesuit missionaries killed, and provoked an almost general rise among the tribes. Thereupon Governor Blanco, who was in office now, entered Araucania with fire and sword, applauded by military men and encomenderos. However, neither at this time could the Spaniards gain advantages, though the war continued a long time and was carried on with great ardor. So they finally decided to take the river Biobio for the southern limit of their territory, erected forts on its banks, and distributed their forces in these forts. One day in 1629 the Araucanians swept down upon fort Yumbel and killed 100 soldiers. Just then *F. Leo de la Vega*, an able and famous soldier of the Flanders wars, arrived as governor. He recruited new troops in Santiago, organizing an army of 800 men, and marched south to avenge the Yumbel disaster. La Vega met the Araucanians at Albarrada and routed them (1631); they, however, continued the war. To prosecute it the governor demanded new levies of men, horses and money from the people of Santiago, who, however, being already impoverished by the frequent demands and exactions, this time refused more contributions and entered into hot disputes with the governor.

La Vega's successor, *Marquis Bailes*, at last began to treat the Araucanians as men who were on equal footing with the Spaniards. That was a new thought; the gallant Araucanians had taught the proud Peninsulars at least one lesson, the lesson of respecting them. Governor Bailes invited them to a *parliament* to consult with them as men with men. At Quillin the solemn union was held in 1641 and it was largely attended by Spaniards and Araucanians. After many consultations they all agreed to live in peace and friendship in future.

The Araucanians should remain free from the labors of the encomiendas and the Spaniards were allowed to rebuild the destroyed cities. Will the reader note that the Araucanians were the only native people in all South America that were exempt from the forced labors of the Spaniards and that they preserved their independence through their love of liberty and their military gallantry.

The dove of peace had hovered over the old battlefields already fourteen years, when some higher officers of the Spanish army, relatives of the governor, through their avarice and rudeness occasioned another rise of the Araucanians in 1655. They destroyed various forts along the frontier and even the town of Chillan, which lies far north of the river Biobio. The coward governor fled to Santiago to escape the fury of the people of Concepcion who declared him deposed of the governorship. The Araucanians prosecuted the war, in which they were led by the mestizo Alejo, but at last were willing to celebrate another parliament when *Angel de Pereda*, a new and devoted governor, arrived. — Even as late as 1766 the problem of conquering and civilizing the Araucanians had not been solved. In this year the Jesuit Villareal in Spain presented to King Charles III. the plan of building towns in Araucania, thinking of civilizing her people in this way; as though the Araucanians had no towns, had no civil government, had no good virtues. The project was accepted and put into practice in Chile; but some tribes opposed this and provoked a revolt which caused this second plan of the Jesuits to frustrate also. But the Araucanians were again willing to make peace and to hold a parliament. Their principal chiefs promised to send their sons to a school which was to be erected in Chillan especially for them. This new tactic, however, of getting the better over the Araucanian people, just as little produced any result.

To the calamities of the Araucanian wars which demanded money, men, and time and wrought great havoc in the

weak Chilean colony, to these calamities must be added those of the *earthquakes*. A long list of seismic disturbances could be enumerated; but the most horrible earthquake occurred May 13th, 1649, when Santiago, the capital, was reduced to a heap of ruins. Churches and houses buried a large part of the scanty population under their debris.

All these causes contributed to the *stagnation* of colonial affairs. At the close of the 17th century Chile was still far back. The first governors had usually been distinguished military men and had displayed but slight ability in managing the affairs of government. Being engaged in the wars of Araucania they spent the most of their time in Concepcion and on the frontier. Later stupid and avaricious courtiers came, some of whom enriched themselves by negotiating unlawfully and by selling favored positions to office seekers. The population was very scanty. Besides the capital there were in the whole country only five towns of some importance and these consisted of but a few houses and were separated by large uncultivated districts. In Valparaiso, now the largest port on South America's west coast, there were at that time only a few storerooms and a small number of plain houses. Even Santiago, the capital, had the appearance of an extensive, dreary village of some 7000 inhabitants. Temples, convents, and monasteries rose above the very plain houses, all of one story and thatched. Spaniards, mestizos, natives, and negroes constituted the population; they dressed coarsely and lived meagerly. A sheep then was worth from fifteen to twenty cents, a cow from one dollar to one and a half. About 1750 a university was opened in Santiago in which the ordinary studies and philosophy, theology, and the canonical and Roman laws were taught. Physicians were thought not to be necessary; surgery was considered a vile practice, a practice that might be proper for barbarians and bloodsuckers, not for civilized colonists. — Two years after the opening of the university a mint was brought into existence. Money was coined

of gold and silver and it circulated more freely than it had done heretofore when it had been very scarce. The circulation of money, however, obtained its proper impetus when the Spanish merchant vessels were permitted to sail around cape Horn and to come up on the west coast whereby commerce grew more lively.

In 1767 the Spanish government *expelled the Jesuits* from its possessions. The immense power which the Jesuit order exercised in Europe and America and the secret grafting influence which they acquired in politics and state affairs made the rulers apprehensive of them. Consequently Charles III. ordered that the Jesuits be expelled from all his dominions, as they had been driven already from the Portuguese countries and soon after were from France and other countries. In Chile the Jesuits had acquired immense wealth through donations and inheritance on the part of devoted colonists. They possessed more than thirty large landed properties and ranches; their houses, mills, vineyards, herds, and slaves were innumerable. The administrator of the Chilean colony did not favor the movement of expelling the Jesuits and only reluctantly executed the order for the expulsion; Bishop Alday assisted in the work. All the preparations having been made in deepest silence, in one and the same night all the houses of the Jesuits in Chile were surrounded, their occupants seized, and soon after sent to Italy. There were about 400 thus expelled; one or the other only had succeeded to make his escape. Among the exiled were historians and theologians. The properties of the Jesuits were sold by the attorney general; of the proceeds each exiled received the daily pension of 25 cents; the rest was appropriated to public institutions of benevolence and to instruction.

The most distinguished of the governors of Chile during the colonial period was *Don Ambrose O'Higgins*. Though he was of poor Irish descent he had risen by degrees until he had become intendente of Concepcion, chief magistrate of the

frontier, and the man who enjoyed the confidence of old Governor Benavides. About the year 1790 O'Higgins became governor. As such he visited the entire country from Copiapo in the north to the extreme south, correcting abuses in administration with firmness and encouraging the founding of more towns. He persuaded the indomitable Araucanians to attend a parliament which was solemnly held at Negrete, and he also suppressed the encomiendas on which the natives of the north and the center were held in servitude. The reader will remember that in Araucania no encomiendas could be established. — The river Mapocho, a mountain stream that flows through Santiago, had done much harm to the city when incessant rains had fallen in the mountains and the waters had overflowed its banks. O'Higgins built the dikes which have kept the rushing waters in their channel ever since. He also built the wagon road between Santiago and Valparaiso, a distance of eighty miles, through a mountainous country, and quite far advanced the palatial residence of the governor. Ambrose O'Higgins was nominated viceroy of Peru and decorated with various orders. His son Bernhard became the revolutionary hero of Chile and her first president.

COLONIAL LAWS AND LIFE.

The author thinks it proper to record the regulations and peculiarities of South American colonial life in this connection. As he lived in Chile he was best able to acquaint himself with the colonial affairs of that country. But as all the colonies received about the same regulations and laws from the Spanish Court and were governed by the same methods, Chile's colonial life was similar or equal to that of the other colonies. We, therefore, shall not repeat the regulations and laws of colonies.

Spain exercised *a despotism* over her colonies. The government mainly thought of exploiting them and of keeping the colonists submissive to royal dominion and to the Catholic

faith. To exercise the desired control the government and church representatives entered into all the relations of society and of families, even into the consciences of men and women. The "Laws of Indias" regulated the minutest acts of life designating even the hour when the colonists should go to bed and the clothing they should wear. No liberty was allowed them for anything. "Obey and be quiet is the duty of a good vassal," was the maxim of a viceroy. That despotic ruling took all energy from the Americans and retarded the material, intellectual, and moral progress of the colonies.

The king and the "Council of Indias" governed the colonists and the latter sacrificed all to their king, who was revered almost as divine. He exercised all the powers, being absolute ruler, exclusive legislator, and supreme judge. In all matters pertaining to the colonies he obtained his information from the Council of Indias to whom the colonists had to apply. The king also exercised an ecclesiastic patronage. He gave notice to the pope concerning the priests who should be appointed bishops, and no disposition of the Roman pontiff could be executed without permission from the king and his council.

In Chile the royal power was exercised by a governor who was president of the audiencia and captain-general of the army. He was appointed by the king, as all the high officers were, and ordinarily served a term of eight years, receiving an annual salary of 8000 pesos. The encomenderos managed the districts or encomiendas into which the country was divided. At the close of the 18th century intendentes and minor officers were appointed instead of the encomenderos. The Chilean colony had two intendencias: the one of Santiago, the other of Concepcion, separated by the river Maule. — The royal audiencia was the highest tribunal of justice in a colony. The alcaldes of the municipalities were inferior judges and there were still many other tribunals so that the administration of justice was very complicate. At the close

of the 18th century tribunals of mining and commerce were created in Chile whose duty it was to encourage and foster this industry and commerce. — The penal laws authorized torture for the purpose of forcing confession from the accused and it was generally applied very severely. On the principal plaza of Santiago was a post on which persons who had been sentenced to be punished were publicly whipped under screams and lamentations. — The law recognized the slavery of negroes, and primogeniture according to which the property of the father passed in its entirety to the eldest son. While he became the wealthy landowner or property holder, his brothers and sisters were usually thrown into misery. — Another disequality must be recorded. Between persons born in Spain and persons born in a colony a decided difference was observed; the first were called peninsulars and the latter, creoles. The advantages were all in favor of the former; for they were appointed to the higher offices, and even commerce was carried on so as to enrich them. Among the many who governed the state and the church during the 250 years of Chile's colonial life, there were but two governors and two bishops who were creoles, i. e. who were born in the colony. This unjust preferment provoked bitter complaints among the creoles and a deep rivalry arose therefrom between the latter and the proud peninsulars, a rivalry which was destined to become a forerunner to the revolution of independence.

In the towns were boards, called cabildos, which had the policing and the progress of the locality in charge. These municipal boards were composed of regents who bought their offices at public auction and usually kept them for life. They elected two of their number as alcaldes, corresponding to our justices of the peace, whose duty it was to administer justice and to see to public order. While the higher positions were in the hands of the peninsulars, the town boards were generally composed of creoles who thus acquired some ability, later to agitate and work for independence. — Many abuses and

frauds were committed by the officials. The king's endeavor it was to make the wrong doings of his functionaries impossible, depriving them of all occasions. But in spite of this even governors and judges committed all kinds of abuses and with money quieted all complaints. And the king was easily deceived, owing to the distance between Spain and her colonies.

Since the beginning of the conquest clericals of various religious orders had come to Chile, first the Franciscans and Dominicans, then the Mercenarians, and lastly the Jesuits and Augustinians. They founded convents which through devoted donors and testator's became wealthy readily. The number of religionists, which now is scarce and without influence, at that time was very large and influential. The Franciscan order was as strong as that of the Jesuits; each had 400 individuals. The friars enjoyed such a predominance and such considerations that the principal families felt honored when they had one of their relatives amongst them. In pace with the convents the nunneries increased in number. The tranquillity of the ones and the others was very often disturbed by scandalous chapters, occasioned by the elections of directors of those institutions. The event agitated a whole city at times, influencing families in favor of the one or the other candidate. The friars attended to preaching and served in the Spanish and Indian missions. In spite of the personal sacrifices and the money expended the missionaries to the Araucanians did not accomplish the results that had been expected; for those people could not understand the catholic doctrines and dogmas. Though they were baptized by the thousands, they stayed as barbarous as before. The mistake was that the Araucanians were not led to Him who taketh away the sins of the world; they experienced no change of heart and, therefore, did not improve their way of living. — The convents opened the first schools in Chile and had the monopoly of teaching the Chilean youth for more than two centuries,

but only a small percent of the boys attended the convents. The instruction was confined to reading, writing, and counting. Latin and some sciences were taught only for the purpose of educating new religionists, i. e. members for the specific orders. Schools for girls were almost unknown. The state supported the university of the capital and two other institutions and the king authorized the opening of an academy in Santiago in which arithmetic, geometry, and drawing were taught. The scarcity and high prices of books contributed to the prevailing ignorance. There was no press in Chile during the colonial times, and from Spain hardly any other books came than the lives of saints and some such devotional reading. These were the only books the inflexible ecclesiastical Tribunal of Inquisition of Peru would allow to be read. The Inquisition judges proceeded secretly and applied tortures to wrest confessions from the accused. They believed in compacts with the devil and persecuted supposed witches and conjurors without pity and also such as were denounced for heretical readings or expressions. The unfortunates who fell into the hands of the Inquisition judges were generally condemned to the loss of their properties or to a long and hard imprisonment; at times they were burned alive in the autos de fe. There was no Inquisition Tribunal in Chile, but emissaries of the Peruvian office came to Chile and sent accused Chilean colonists to Lima. Thus the Peruvian office drew its victims from all the Spanish colonies, suppressed individual thought and enlightenment, spread terror over the hearts and minds of the people, and contributed to the stagnation of the colonial times.

Chile was the poorest of the Spanish American colonies. It had neither the rich mines of Peru and Mexico nor the valuable products of the tropics. The Chilean people had to work incessantly on the fields and in commercial pursuits to make a living; work and poverty kept them from the corruption of the other colonists. Though the contributions were

numerous, yet public taxes amounted to but 500,000 pesos annually. This amount did not suffice for the expenses of the administration and pay of the standing army; so the royal treasuries of Potosí and of Lima had to assist the government of Chile with an annual subvention. Some values came from mines in the north, but the principal sources of income were agriculture and the raising of cattle. The cattle and cereals of Spain became thoroughly acclimatized in Chile, as also did fruit trees and domestic fowl. Until the close of the 17th century tallow, fat, leather, and dried beef were Chile's principal export articles; but since that time the raising of wheat increased rapidly. That Spain might sell her wines and oils without competition, the production of these products was prohibited in the colonies. Although the raising of the olive and the vine was at last permitted in Peru and Chile, it was under the condition of not exporting these products. The agricultural pursuits were hampered by such restrictions, and also by the fact that large tracts of land were kept undivided. This latter circumstance was due on the one hand to the law of primogeniture, in virtue of which large estates came into the possession of one man, the oldest son of the family, and on the other hand it was due to the extensive domains of the religious orders. Thus many people were left without lands and homes, without the means to acquire a livelihood, and were doomed to poverty. May not the peon class have originated from such conditions?

The same system of *ruinous monopoly* controlled the commerce. The Americans had to buy dear and to sell cheap. Not only was every foreigner prohibited to trade in Spanish South America, but even the merchants in Spain could do it only through one port; first Sevilla was designated for that purpose, afterwards Cadiz received the privilege. A body of men who constituted the commercial house in those ports of monopoly, intervened in everything respecting the trade with America, regulating the quantity and the quality

of the merchandises and the manner how, as well as the time when they should be dispatched. From time to time a number of small vessels sailed, being ordered, however, to touch three or four ports of the Caribbean sea only. To these ports the colonial merchants went to barter their goods, selling and buying in a great fair at prices which the merchants of Cadiz imposed upon them. The Chilean merchants were obliged to make their sales and purchases in the distant fair of Portobello, a New Granadian port. It takes the steamer now seventeen days to make the trip from Valparaiso to Panama; and then those Chilenos had to cross the isthmus. The vessels returned to Spain loaded with precious metals and other products of America. On the trip they were at times plundered by English and Dutch privateers, who were a menace to the trade for a long time. The fear of these pirates suspended the departure of the vessels several times and each time they stayed away a few years. In those years the Americans could neither sell their products nor purchase Spanish goods. Then smuggling was indulged in and carried on in great style and unscrupulously. Only at the beginning of the 18th century did the Bourbon kings begin to tolerate commerce around cape Horn. And in 1778 Charles III. granted still more liberal concessions by giving Valparaiso and Concepcion the permission to carry on commerce directly with Spain. The transandine commerce with Buenos Aires also gained in importance. However, the main marketing country of Chile always was Peru. The Chilenos took there dried beef, tallow, grease, leather, copper, and wheat and brought from Peru sugar and salt and from Quito cloth and other goods.

Chile's population became a mixed race. The wars in the south, the encomiendas and small-pox in the north decimated the natives of the country, while the population of the Spanish type increased by mixing with the native and generating with it one single race. Nevertheless, the increase of the population progressed very slowly, it being Spain's en-

deavor to keep her colonies separate one from the other and from the rest of the world, impeding immigration. Nobody could migrate into a colony or leave a colony without permission from the authorities. The few foreigners who succeeded to immigrate, had to purchase the permission from the court; the king at last ordered to demand 410 pesos for the permission. In every case the applicant had to be an Apostolic Roman Catholic; a non-Catholic or a Protestant could not enter the colonies under any consideration. About the middle of the 18th century the king ordered the expulsion of those who might be in Chile without permission, when it was found that there were then not more than fifteen foreigners in the country; whether there were any without permission, the historian does not record. Just before the revolution of independence, about a century ago, the Chilean colony had half a million of inhabitants, of whom the most were natives and mestizos; Santiago then counted 30,000 to 40,000 and Valparaiso 5,000 to 6,000 persons.

Social distinctions existed in the colonial population by law and by custom. The peninsular Spaniards, designated by the nickname of Chapetones, constituted the upper class; they were mainly public officers and merchants. The creoles were the second class; they were descendants of the Spaniards, but born in the colony; they were wealthy landowners and rich proprietors. After these two classes, which were privileged and rivaled with one another, the mestizos followed who descended from Spanish and native unions, and lastly the mulattos who were a mixture of Spanish and negro blood and were considered infamous by law. Prejudice and racial pride kept the classes separate; similar distinctions exist still today in the countries of the southern continent. The principal Chilean families descended from obscure adventurers of the time of conquest or from merchants and poor employes. — There were also negro slaves, but they were not considered or treated like human beings; they were bought and sold as

horses and cattle. A young and robust negro was worth from 400 to 600 pesos; an old and feeble female slave was sold for 100 pesos. For these unfortunates family life did not exist, nor any Christian regard. They had been carried away from the African coast by infamous tradesmen and sold in America. On account of Chile's pleasant climate and light labors on the fields the negroes were not so numerous there as in tropical countries and the lot of the few was easier. The natives of the center and the north who did not intermingle with the rest of the population, lived in separate villages and were governed by their chiefs, retaining their customs and usages, provided that they did not act contrary to the Catholic faith and ways. The native men were obliged to pay a polltax, of whose income the salaries of the chiefs, of the teaching priests, and of the protectors were paid. The latter were appointed to defend them against fraud and violence.

Indolence and monotony were *the essence of colonial life*. The afternoon naps and the religious exercises of the morning and the evening required a large part of the day. In the evening at nine o'clock in the winter and at ten in the summer the bell of retirement terminated the visits in the drawing rooms; the doors were closed and the streets deserted; these then were dark and dreadful. Traveling was difficult and rare. Outside news did not arrive until very, very late, there being no mail service. As Chile of that time had no large business houses, no banks, no daily papers, no politics, the subjects of conversation did not go beyond the family circles; but still there was enough for the gossipers to chat, for the families were large. As it was difficult to export products the necessities of life were abundant and cheap. A bushel of wheat was sold for about twenty cents and a cow for two dollars. A hired girl received one dollar for her monthly service. On the contrary the articles of European importation were scarce and expensive. It is plain that those colonists did not even know many of the articles which the comfort of

modern life requires. However, wealthy families had some jewels, silver table services, valuable robes made of satin, velvet or silk and bought at gold prices. Such articles and also certain pieces of furniture were transmitted from generation to generation by testament. Tea and coffee as also Spanish wines and other liquors were taken, as we take medicine; so scarce they were. The gentlemen drank chocolate and all took mate made of herbs from Paraguay. *Festivals and public diversions* occurred then much more frequently than now in Chile. The crowning of a new king, the arrival of a governor or of a bishop, the birth of a royal baby etc. were occasions for popular festivals which used to last many days. Religious processions in which the church exhibited her glory, prayers said in public squares in the presence of thousands, nine days of public worship to the honor of some saint etc., succeeded one another without interruption. The most gaudy of the neighborhood came to show off in these processions. — Ignorance and exaggerations of devout souls filled the imaginations with absurd beliefs. The people told one another of wonderful events, of spirits in torment, of appearances of the devil, of persons possessed by him, of fairies, witches, and ghosts. Such fabulous stories, at times, alarmed an entire neighborhood. — Cock-fights were a common diversion and almost as cruel as the bull-fights. Theatres did not exist in colonial Chile.

COLONIAL TIMES OF NEW GRANADA.

1550 to 1810.

With the establishment of the audiencia April 7th, 1550, the colonial period of New Granada had its beginning. When, at this time, rich silver mines were discovered in the valley of Cambis, the audiencia commissioned Captain S. Quintero to found a town there, which was called San Sebastian. The Muzos and other native tribes kept their sections of the country in constant alarm wherefore the audiencia resolved to take steps towards their pacification. The undertaking was put in charge of *Peter Ursua* who started out on the expedition and thought to go simultaneously in search of el dorado. As soon as Ursua entered the country of the Muzos daily fights took place. Finally emissaries of the caciques came to offer peace which Ursua accepted, extending at the same time the invitation to the principal caciques to meet for a consultation. They, trusting in the commander's good will, presented themselves in the Spanish camp. While they were there they were villainously and cruelly assassinated. Then the natives became infuriated and the war implacable. Towns had to be forsaken and were reduced to ashes. Ursua had to abandon that country, burdened with the infamy of his felony. His crime he paid a few years later on the bank of the Amazon where he was assassinated.

The Spanish Court decided to appoint *Montanyo* as visitor and manager to the New Granadian colony. Montanyo was seemingly polluted by every sort of foulness and, while governing the colony, rolled up a record of horror. He discharged some members of the audiencia and took the civil government in his own hands. His servants robbed the Indians on the highways. Justice was sold to the highest bidder, but not dealt out to him who deserved it. His flatterers were rewarded with the goods which they took from those who

opposed their depredations. Montanyo obliged the secretary of the audiencia to authorize various false writings and persecuted the archbishop for interceding in behalf of the victims of his tyranny. And it happened, indeed, that Montanyo had Judge P. Salcedo beheaded because he had not supported his robberies. To draw the attention away from the machinations of his officers, he resolved to wage war against the Pijaos tribe which did not cease to molest the towns that were nearest their borders. Captain Salinas faithfully discharged his duties, for he conquered that valiant tribe so completely as not to attempt another formal battle.

The arrival of J. Maldonado as attorney-general of the audiencia afforded a moment of hope to the oppressed. Montanyo undertook a campaign, being desirous of gaining a victory which might, in a measure at least, palliate his wrong doings, but he found no chance to fight. At his return to Bogata he learned with horror that some of his enemies had left for the coast for the purpose of going to Spain to lay their complaints before the Court; this was done in 1557. Judges were appointed who suspended Montanyo from office and put him in prison. Promptly he was arraigned, found guilty, and sent to Spain bound with a piece of the horrible chain which he had used to imprison his victims. In Valladolid, Spain, his trial was resumed and Montanyo was condemned to death.

The Muzos had opened hostilities again and with greater vigor than before. Captain Lanchero asked for the order to fight or, as they called it, to pacify them, and he obtained it. After some obstinate fighting Lanchero had the good fortune to defeat them so completely that the rest of the tribe abandoned the territory and made their abodes with the Carares. Lanchero founded the city of Trinidad in their territory. Thereafter A. Toledo undertook a campaign against the Colimas who were likewise defeated and brought to terms; in their territory the town of Palma was founded.

To aid the advancement of affairs in the New Granadian

colony, the Spanish Court thought it expedient to appoint a supreme authority endowed with the faculties of a governor and of a captain-general; *Andrew Venero* received the appointment. He arrived at Santa Fe de Bogata in 1564 and initiated an administrative term of ten years which is known in history as *the golden period* of the Granadian colony. He paid especial attention to the Indians, to whom he had lands assigned. He forbade to burden them with forced labor and contributions, inforcing thus "the new laws" of Charles I., and he appointed a member of the audiencia as the protector of the natives. Venero had some four hundred churches and jails built in the towns, ordered to open parochial schools, and regulated the mission work. He ordered the exploitation of the Santa Ana silver mines and the Muzo emerald mines, and had the gold dust which so far had been used as a means of exchange, reduced to ingols and then coined by the government. He also attended to the improvement of roads, to the construction of bridges, lent his aid to the traffic between Bogata and Honda and to the navigation of the river Magdalena. In the cloister of Father Anton Miranda philosophical and theological studies were commenced at this time, bringing the idea of a pontifical university into existence. Venero watched with special care over the administration of justice and brought those to terms who thought their titles of nobility made them immune; for he punished the culprits without regard to titles or persons. In 1566 the terrible plague of small-pox ravaged, decimating the population. Governor Venero procured help for the sick and the needy and punished the bandits who availed themselves of the public calamity to plunder and to commit crimes. Full of merits and applauded by a grateful people President Venero returned to Spain towards the close of the year 1578. — During this administration Marshal Quesada also undertook an expedition in search of el dorado. He expended more than 250,000 pesos in the enter-

prise and experienced the same disastrous result as all the former adventurers had experienced in the same search.

As the towns of the Pacific were plundered by *English and Dutch pirates*, so were also those of the Caribbean coast; and it seems the work of *pillaging and devastation* was nowhere carried on more disastrously than here. At the close of the year 1585 the English pirate, *Francis Drake*, attacked the Granadian port Riohacha, took it, and secured a rich haul of pearls. Then he sacked Santa Marta and attacked Cartagena, which he took in spite of heroic resistance. A month and a half he stayed in the latter city and collected over 400,000 pesos, of which sum 107,000 pesos were given to keep him from sacking the city. Nevertheless, at the moment of departure he wanted to set the Franciscan convent and the suburb on fire; but the prelate saved them by paying another additional sum of money. From Cartagena he went to the city of Panama where he was repulsed; a disease brought his mad career to a close on the isthmus. Somewhat later Christopher Cordello attacked Santa Marta and robbed the valuables which the people had been able to save from Drake's rapacity. — About the year 1670 *Morgan* appeared with a large force before Portobello, which port he took and sacked in spite of the heroic resistance of her sons. That Morgan might be able to give his operations a larger scope, he called all his companions together on the island of Tortuga for a general consultation. To secure provisions for their operations, they ransacked Riohacha and Maracaibo, deceiving the Granadian admiral. Then they attacked the fortified island of Santa Catalina with 32 ships and 2000 men; the island was cowardly surrendered by the commander. Morgan commissioned Brodely to take Chagres whose garrison resisted with unheard of heroism; of the 314 valiant men who defended the towers only 30 remained, and these were wounded. All the pirates having united there, they began the march across the isthmus to the city of Panama. Though the city was vig-

orously defended, after several assaults it was taken and then thoroughly plundered. Before returning to their ships they resolved to burn the city and Panama sank into ashes. 600 principal citizens were lead away as prisoners and threatened to be sold into slavery, unless they would pay an increased ransom. Consenting to this, they surrendered more large sums. The plunder was divided in Cruces where Morgan adjudged almost all to himself. Arriving at Chagres he took the best vessels and fled in them, depriving thus his comrades of the spoils. Such scandals disquieted the European nations; and England, having been petitioned so often, at last gave orders to close her ports in the West Indian islands to the sea robbers and to persecute them.

Soon after this piracy a term of administration was initiated which became for the colonists not less disastrous than the former; it was the term of *Ibanyez and Larrea*. The pirates had laid the coasts waste, the new functionaries became pirates of the interior. When they exercised their power from 1674 to '78 they committed all kinds of excesses and gave themselves up to scheming. They sought such persons as were involved in law-suits which were apt to fail so as to gain financial advantage thereby. They did not appoint men to office, but sold offices to the highest bidders. To them everything had a price and was salable. In 1678 the Court appointed another man to the presidency. Accusations were brought against his predecessors; they were tried and found guilty. Ibanyez died while the sentence was upon him, while Larrea succeeded to escape, evading thus the punishment; however, he was not able to rid himself of his infamy.

And now a *time of quarrels* between the civil and church authorities follows, which were accompanied by odious scandals. The quarrels were occasioned by Franciscan friars who wanted the nuns of Santa Clara to be dependent on them, while the nuns wished to be under the supervision of the bishop who defended them and wished to terminate the unpleasant

disturbance. But the civil authority sustained the friars in their demand. For years these scandalous disputes went on. Every time when a judicial decree arrived from the audiencia favoring the friars, the bishop appealed to the Spanish Court, the governor then declared the episcopal seat vacant, and the bishop fulminated excommunication against the civil authorities. The bishop of Santa Marta, mixing in a dispute of another jurisdiction, accursed the prelate, and the latter returned the curse to the Santa Marta bishop and extended it also to the friars, who in their turn flung it over to the nuns. Yes, the friars even laid formal siege to the nunnery, broke the doors open, damaged the cloister, and maltreated the nuns, who defended themselves with chairs. The friars of all the other orders also armed themselves to assist the Franciscans and to fight the vicar-general; for this man had locked the churches in obedience to the bishop's order. The disputes and fights were finally terminated by a decree of the king and a bull of the pope, in which they gave justice to the nuns by freeing them from the dependency of the Franciscans. The scandal had lasted three years and had revealed the demoralization in which those orders lived. These disturbances and the previously related political corruptions show the spirit of the age and the forces that were at work in the South American colonial life.

At the close of the 17th century *corsairs and pirates* returned to the Granadian coast, while the French were at war with the Spaniards. *Baron de Pointis* commanded French vessels in the West Indian waters and had the ill-will to accept the *pirate Ducasse* as his auxiliary. They appeared before Cartagena with 22 vessels in April, 1697. While the city was attacked the Castilian commander *Sancho Jimenez* covered himself with glory when he defended the castle of Bocachica. With 73 men the Castilian resisted the assault of 5000; before surrendering he broke his sword. While lowering the drawbridge, he showed the rest of his steel to Pointis, introduced

his young wife to him, and pointed out to him the cemetery where the dead that had fallen, were resting; the hospital where the men that were wounded, were suffering; and the towers where the cowards that had advised to surrender, were lying in chains. Commander Pointis drew his own sword out of its sheath and giving it to Jimenez said: "A gentleman like you must not be unarmed. Carry my sword and honor it as you have honored yours." Don Sancho Jimenez was appointed governor of the city and saved it from being plundered by the pirates, thanks to the protection of high-minded Pointis, the victor who knew how to honor the conquered. After an occupation of five weeks the French left, carrying with them valuables to the amount of eight million dollars. Among the valuables taken by Pointis was the silver sepulchre which belonged to the cathedral of Cartagena. Years later it was returned to the city by Louis XIV., king of the French, accompanied by a valuable silver palm. About a century still later, in 1815, when the war of revolution was waged, both jewels, the sepulchre and the palm, were melted and coined during the memorable siege of the heroic city, and they served to purchase rations for the soldiers of independence. They could not have served a better purpose.

In the year 1718 New Granada was raised to a viceroyship. This new step was highly important in as much as the first official should be endowed with more power and authority than had been the case heretofore. However, the country was not advanced thereby. Indeed, from what happened in the first forty years of the 18th century one can not record one single act which might have benefited the colony. Instead of solving the great problems of administration the authorities spent their time in sterile controversies. We shall, therefore, not tarry, but proceed to the year 1740, when *Sebastian de Eslaba* became viceroy. He stayed in Cartagena the eight years of his administration, not residing in Bogata, the capital. During this time new troubles came on. The British

government had the previous year declared Spain war and confided her fleet in American waters to *Admiral Vernon*, who attacked Granadian ports. So sure was Vernon of complete triumph that he had medals prepared on which Don Blas de Leso, the governor of Cartagena, was represented as kneeling and surrendering his sword and the city's keys to Vernon. The English squadron was composed of eight ships with three bridges each, 28 ships of the line, 12 frigates, a few fire ships, and 130 transport vessels. The squadron carried 9000 men of disembarkation, 2000 negroes from Jamaica, one North American regiment, and 15,000 marines. Viceroy Eslaba and Governor Leso had for the defense 1,100 veteran soldiers, 300 militiamen, 600 Indian workmen, two companies of freed negroes and mulattos, and 6 war vessels manned by 400 soldiers and 600 marines. The British attacked the fortifications of Cartagena March 15th. Having gained some advantage, due to the fact that the Granadians could not attend to all the threatened points on account of the scanty defense, they planned a formal attack of the castle San Lazarus. When the British, 4000 men strong, marched against it, the Spanish lieutenant, Navarrete, met them with bayonets, repulsed them, and the assaulters left 800 dead and 200 wounded men behind. By the 28th the defenders of the city had recaptured all the points which the English had occupied, with the exception of Manzanillo. Vernon, deceived in his illusions about an easy and quick triumph and seeing that infirmities wrought havoc among his troops, resolved to cannonade the city; no noteworthy harm was done. After the destruction of the fortifications which he had occupied, Vernon left the Granadian waters and sailed for Jamaica. He left behind him 9000 dead men, killed by diseases and the valor of the enemy, a large part of military supplies which he was obliged to abandon, and six vessels which he burned, as they were useless for the return trip. Thus records Sr. Otero, the historian.

In the year 1761 *Don P. M. Zerda* entered upon the duties of the viceroyship. He was a man of ability; his merits had secured him a high position in Spain. In New Granada he directed his first attention to the regulation of public taxes which had brought but meagre income to the public treasury on account of bad management. At different occasions he petitioned the Court to grant the Granadian ports special privileges, as that would be a most efficient means to avoid contraband. Zerda also established places where government monopoly goods were to be sold; such as, whiskey and tobacco. He had workmen come from Spain, who were able to open new industries, affording thus the people new opportunities to work and at the same time securing more income for the public treasury. So, for instance, he established the saltpetre factory in Tunja and the powder factory in Santa Fe to which he annexed a factory of pottery. In the line of public improvements he had bridges built across rivers and began the work to close up the entrance to the bay of Cartagena, called Boca Grande; this was a necessary step towards the completion of the defense of the city.

During Sr. Zerda's administration the royal order to expel the Jesuits reached the colony. We shall relate here what Colombian history keeps on record in regard to their expulsion. In August, 1767, the Jesuits were taken from the schools which they had in the country and were, under protection, sent to the nearest ports. There they should take different routes in search of places of refuge which many countries denied them. Their properties which they had delivered up in the best order and under inventory, were managed by a commission and the income from the same was assigned to the public treasury. 171 years the order had existed in the colony. As their mission work in which they chiefly taught the catechism, always had achieved the best results, public instruction suffered when their thirteen schools were closed. With skill and perseverance the Jesuits had given instruction

to a large number of young men. Their philological studies which they had pursued, classifying the Indian dialects and grouping them around the mother languages, were completely lost. 103 farms which they had cultivated, came in the possession of the government. Those nearest the centers of population were later sold to individuals, while the others were neglected and finally wholly abandoned. A growth of young trees sprung up on lands which labor had made productive, and the natives who had been brought under the sway of civilization, again returned to a nomadic life. The decree of expulsion, therefore, wrought harm in the New Granadian colony. The Jesuits were remembered by the good they had done in the mission work and by the press they had had in use since 1734.

In the year 1780 *Sr. Flores* became viceroy, but was placed under the tutelage of a visitor who assisted in the administration in the capacity of a *regent*. The latter introduced efficient regulations to improve the possessions of the crown so as to increase the government income. He also raised the prices of the articles which the government had monopolized, introduced new duties, and extended those duties that were already in use, to the smaller industries which had hitherto been free. Dividing the inhabitants into two classes, he had a poll-tax of one peso collected from one class and one of two pesos from the other class. These contributions were partly sent to Spain for war expenses. Thus the discontentment increased and spread that had been caused by the introduction of certain measures favorable to the native population. The public ill-will, however, was not aroused until the guards came into existence whose duty it was to watch the monopolized articles and to collect the new duties. A writer says: "The guards trampled the rights of the people under foot, vexed them, and ruined property wherever they wanted." The monopolized articles; such as, salt, whiskey, tobacco, packs of cards, were sold at high prices; bridge-toll

was excessively high; permits for going and coming on the roads, had to be purchased. In short, the people were vexed in a thousand ways. When their patience was exhausted they thought of revenge. Those of Simocota went out to meet the guards; they killed one and mortally wounded another. The people of other places followed the example and all protested against the new duties and especially against the manner of collecting them. These were the first tumultuous movements of an agitation that should soon shake the very foundation of the viceroyship. The audiencia proved to be unable to suppress it. In the month of March, 1781, market was held in Socorro and many people gathered. When the crowds indulged in conversations on the current topic, a woman, Manuela Bertran by name, tore the edict off which published the collection of duties, pulled the royal arms from the monopoly building, and, trampling them under foot, cried for war. All the people were drawn into the tumult. The authorities of the place made an endeavor to control the agitation, but were intimidated by the populace. Then they tried to escape and would have been badly treated had not a priest come to their assistance. He rushed with the sacrament out of the church and under this protection brought them into safety. The flame of insurrection was ablaze. All the northern districts, without exception, revolted and appointed leaders; *Francisco Berbero* became the soul of the revolution. He sent a representation to the regent-visitor and the audiencia at Bogata, to inform them of what had happened and to point out the greater evils that would follow, if by opportune concessions they would not satisfy the demands of the people. The officials, however, did not abandon their former system and demanded that the revolters return to obedience. The revolting spirit continued to permeate the entire north and extended even to some provinces of Venezuela. So the revolutionary leaders resolved to march to Bogata, the capital. The regent knowing well the profound hatred that was entertained

against him, sent a force of 100 men under Barrera to keep them back or to fight them, accompanied by Judge Osorio who should treat with the rebels. As soon as the revolters who were 500 strong, met the regent's force they got ready to fight. But Barrera's men, seeing that the files of their opponents momentarily increased in numbers, left him. The commander and the judge were made prisoners; Judge Osorio, however, was released and died soon after. When the officials received the news of this event, they were panic-stricken, especially the regent whom the revolters had threatened to kill. In the quiet of the night the audiencia advised him to retire at once to Honda and resolved that a commission be authorized to negotiate with the rebels and go out to meet them. The number of these constantly increased on their march to the capital and they took, as they proceeded, tobacco and whiskey from the government monopoly buildings, selling them to provide rations for their troops or destroying them. When they met the commissioners of the audiencia, Berbero presented in writing what they demanded in the name of the people. In the negotiations that followed the commissioners made new representations which, though they were not accepted, caused the rumor to spread among the revolters that the duties should continue to exist; and at once such a cry was raised and such threatening to march to the capital became audible that the commission did not vacillate any longer, but granted what was demanded. Of the thirty-five articles which the revolters presented the following were the principal ones: To expel the regent from the viceroyship; to abolish the new duties, the permits and the return permits, forever; to reduce the other duties to two per cent; to put the sons of the country, the creoles, in public positions; to require of the captain-generals to organize the townsmen and to drill them so as to be always ready to defend their rights; to concede full amnesty for recent disturbances; and lastly to have the commissioners swear to adhere to these articles. When the articles had been

transmitted to the audiencia, this body approved them in view of the grave circumstances, but secretly circulated the word that they had yielded to force and consequently were not under the obligation to fulfill the treaty articles. Fraudulent conduct that deceived the people who struggled for their rights! When the agreement had been completed, a solemn ceremony was celebrated on the plains of Mortinyo where Berbero had gone into camp with his army. An altar having been erected there, the archbishop held a solemn mass. And there the commissioners of the government on the one hand and the representatives of the people on the other hand, promised by oath to adhere to the treaty articles. Thereupon the tumultuous gathering promptly dispersed, carrying away copies of the articles, which they took as safeguards of their rights. Some of the leaders remained waiting to be appointed to public positions with which the audiencia was flattering them. Then they also returned to their respective districts.

When all was over, the audiencia of the capital annulled the treaty and the archbishop and his priests urged the ignorant people to pay the duties and even to restore to the treasury the values of the tobacco and whiskey that had been lost in the revolutionary movement. Then J. A. Galan who had not been satisfied with the articles and had continued in revolutionary agitations, went through the north of the country to stir the people up. But he found them cold and dismayed; they even threatened to apprehend him. In the south some towns revolted, but without the needed decision and concerted action; the revolting spirit had died out quickly. Galan and some followers were pursued by government forces, following them to the mountain fastnesses. Surprised at midnight in a small house where they lodged, Galan offered a desperate resistance. A few of his men escaped, others were wounded, and Galan himself, having been debilitated by a bullet, was forced to give himself up. He and three associates were taken to the jail of Bogata where a trial was instituted against them which re-

sulted in the sentence that condemned them to death. Let the expressions of this judgment be noted! It disposed that Galan and his associates be dragged to the gallows, that their bodies be quartered, the trunks be burned, and the members be exposed for a warning in the towns that had been the scenes of their scandalous insults. Not satisfied yet, the judges ordered that the houses of the victims be leveled and salt be strewn over the places, and they even extended the curse to the children of the condemned men by declaring them vile. We give this in detail to show the sentiments that prevailed in Spanish colonial life. But the people began to see that in future they could confide their fate only to the justice of their cause and to the strength of their arms.

In the year 1782 the illustrious archbishop of Santa Fe de Bogata, *Caballero y Gongora*, entered upon the duties of a viceroy. With skill, prudence, and benevolent mind he managed the political affairs, forgiving and forgetting past occurrences. He regulated church matters and fomented the missions that were established among the Indians. Observing the rapid increase of pauperism the archbishop-viceroy strongly assisted the institutions that were established for the purpose of helping the destitute. The income of those institutions amounted to 60,000 pesos annually. As he was of the opinion that society was under the obligation to support its needy members, he proposed to the Spanish Court to collect for the poor a certain per cent of the salaries of the bishops, the dignitaries, and the priests and a part of the wealth of the rich citizens. The viceroy believed charity not simply to be a virtue, but a duty also, thus exhibiting noble qualities and that in an unlucky period of the colony. His principal merit, however, consisted in the fomentation he gave to public instruction. He opened various institutions of learning and labored for the establishment of a public university, taking thus the monopoly of teaching from the Dominican order. The viceroy's maxim was: "Education of the youth is the principal

thing and certainly serves as a fundament for the rest." However, the idea of a public school system was in no Spanish mind. He paid special attention to the mining industry which increased the public income and brought growing benefits to individuals. The Court, having been effectively petitioned by the viceroy, sent an able mineralogist to New Granada who discovered new mines, installed machinery, and gave new life to the industry which had been sadly neglected. He asked the Court also for naturalists who might study and disclose the wealth of unexplored nature. They came and through them he opened new industries in the colony and profitable careers for her sons.

In the year 1789 *Sr. Joseph de Espeleta* was appointed viceroy. He had finished a successful career as governor of Cuba and he filled his page in the Granadian history. He directed his first attention to the public income and to economy in expenses. These measures were so much more urgent as his predecessors had contracted a debt of two million pesos. After some time Espeleta saw his efforts crowned with success; for he did not simply pay the public debt, but secured an annual surplus of 375,000 pesos. He also favored mission work, which had degenerated. Some missionaries renewed the old apostolic zeal that used to overcome all difficulties and had brought over 20,000 Indians to a civilized life. The viceroy saw to it that some Franciscans were sent to the valley of the Amazon river where Samuel Fritz, a Jesuit, called "the apostle of the Marathon," had formerly labored with great success. *Sr. Espeleta*, as his predecessor had done, favored benevolent work and labored to improve the lot of the poor, going himself out among the merchants to solicit gifts for the hospitals. Not less desirous to foment public instruction than the archbishop-viceroy, he opened primary schools in the suburbs of the capital, in other cities, and in towns of larger size, and likewise paid attention to higher education. As to material improvements he built bridges, finished the fortifications of

the Cartagena bay, and beautified the capital by opening broad avenues. The viceroy's young nephew, Manuel Rodriguez, published the first paper in the colony in 1791. — Sr. Espeleta studied, and strove to understand, the resources of the country he governed and the privileges that should be conceded to foment the industries. He, therefore, proposed to the Spanish Court to abolish all monopolies, and in their stead to introduce premiums for some export articles and a light duty on other articles. In this way he provided for the public treasury what the monopoly used to produce, and thus he brought new energy into the country's industry, whereby both individual and general prosperity was favored.

In France the revolution shook the very foundations of society at this time. Its rolling waves could not be contained in Europe; they rolled on and on and even reached Spanish South America. The king forbade the introduction of books which gave accounts of the French turmoil, into his colonies. But as prohibition creates curiosity everywhere, so it did here. Endeavors were made to smuggle the prohibited books stealthily into the colony. Among the books thus introduced was the "History of the Constitutional Assembly." The captain of the viceroy's guard brought it to Bogata and lent it to *A. Narin-yo*, who translated that section into Spanish which treats on the "Rights of Man" and had it printed on his own press. Narin-yo's supreme desire it was henceforth "that his fatherland might have a nation, that the colonists might have citizenship." All he had, his fortune, his position, his life, he put into the service of the idea that possessed him. What he printed he circulated quietly among the young men who entertained his advanced ideas in politics. He kept this up for some time; but then his papers fell into the hands of a Spaniard who at once made announcement. The authorities were alarmed and acted very cautiously, waiting to find more evidences. Having succeeded A. Narinyo and twelve others were imprisoned. To force confession in the trial Judge Mosquera ordered to tor-

ture one of the prisoners, who, however, endured the torture with manly firmness and did not in the least compromise any of his associates. Spain was the last of the civilized nations to abolish the application of torture; it was applied in this trial in 1794 and in Spain as late as 1817. Narinyo presented to the audiencia a voluminous and able paper for his defense. Hon. J. A. Ricaurte defended him and was for this defense punished with the confiscation of his property and with imprisonment in the towers of Cartagena. While Narinyo's companions were sent to Spain where the Council of Indias should decide their cases definitely, his own case was decided at home; for he went with the sentence to suffer a seven years' imprisonment in the Spanish towers of Africa. Having arrived at Cadiz, however, he was able to make his escape good. He traveled in Europe and dedicated the rest of his life to the liberty of his fatherland. Though Narinyo was an exile, his ideas and hopes continued to live in New Granada, and his secret agitation went on and on.

Viceroy Espeleta resigned his charge in 1797 and *P. Mendieta* succeeded him. This able courtier and accomplished gentleman knew how to capture the good will of the people, an accomplishment so much more desirable for his administration, as his predecessor had left grateful remembrances behind. He, however, directed his attention rather to benevolent and educational advancement than to material improvements. The missions were again in a deplorable condition; some merely kept alive, others had been abandoned entirely. The best means which Sr. Mendieta could find, to remedy such deplorable evils was the opening of mission schools that might revive the extinguished zeal. He watched the management of the hospitals carefully and proposed to the Court that they be directed by a board of respectable laymen who might be more competent than the clergy. The horrible plague of small-pox which had at various times decimated the population, especially the Indians, appeared again at this time.

The viceroy did all that was in his power to save the people from destruction. His principal merits, however, he seemed to gain by favoring instruction; for he opened more schools and in colleges he introduced chairs for physical and mathematical sciences. At that time already wealthy persons donated sums of money to the welfare of the people; for example in Mompax was a rich colonist who had a humane sentiment. He supported the poor of his native town and founded and endowed a college, expending the sum of 175,500 pesos. In April, 1803, Sr. Mendinueta solicited royal protection for the establishment, which was the closing act of his administration. Returning to Spain he left grateful remembrances for the decided assistance he had rendered the colony.

In September, 1803, *Don A. Amar y Borbon* took charge of the government. He was the last viceroy before the revolution which, in fact, was initiated during his term of office. The political events in the homeland which we shall relate in the introduction of the revolutionary period, exerted a powerful influence over the minds of the colonists. The number of those who met secretly increased. They agreed on the plans that should bring them to the realization of their hopes and they talked of the moment which might be proper to act. But they were careful not to hurt the feelings of the common people who were ignorant in political matters and sullenly obeyed the authority that oppressed them. The viceroy, far from calming the restlessness, augmented it; for as he did not act with decision, but vacillated, he gave nourishment to patriotic feelings and force to the sentiments of revolt. In the first decade of the 19th century there were seen many gatherings and imprisonments, there were heard many hard words and quarrels; the American born, the creole, confronted the proud Spaniard; by speech and by writing self-esteem was aroused and the common man was brought to look for higher things. This agitation continued until 1810 when it broke out into open rebellion.

COLONIAL TIMES OF VENEZUELA.

1567 to 1808.

We made the founding of Caracas, the capital, in 1567 initiate the colonial times of Venezuela. When in the beginning of the 18th century New Granada became a viceroyship Venezuela was incorporated into it and only as late as 1773 the colony was raised to a captaincy-general. Caracas was the residential city of the captain-general and of the archbishop and it was the seat of a college; also a press which published devotional books was in existence. The population of Venezuela towards the close of this period was estimated at 900,000 persons. The colony was, and continued to be, managed poorly and consequently did not produce much. Moreover the Spanish monopoly caused nowhere worse results than here; for not only made it commerce dull, it also became the cause of continuous tumults.

In the year 1796 various persons conspired against the government, pursuing republican aims. Having been arrested and imprisoned in the port of Guaira, three of them were fortunate enough to escape. They went to Caracas and planned another revolt; but the imprudence of one caused their project to be detected, whereupon 72 persons were arrested in a few days. Two of the number, M. Gual and J. M. Espanya, succeeded this time to escape and hid in neighboring colonies. Espanya, however, soon returned to Guaira secretly, was recognized, and again put into prison. Somewhat later Vasconcelos came from Spain as new captain-general and brought the order to put the prisoners on trial. Seven of them were found guilty of treason and were sentenced to hang; their corpses should be annihilated. Unfortunate Espanya was one of the seven; his head was severed and exposed to public view in Guaira and the members of his body were sent to various towns for a warning.

The most renowned and distinguished of the Americans who in those times excited the Spanish colonies to revolt and solicited assistance from foreign governments was *Francisco de Miranda*, who was a native of Caracas and was born in 1750. Having fought for the independence of the North American colonies under George Washington, Miranda was assigned to a Spanish garrison in Cuba. Here he was accused of seeking to deliver the island into the hands of the English, wherefore he fled to Europe. While journeying in England, Germany, Turkey, and Russia, he was received with distinction at the courts he visited. The French revolution induced Miranda in 1789 to go to France and to enlist in the republican army of that country. In a short time he was advanced to the high position of a general; but the bad luck he had in besieging Maestrich, the loss of the battle of Nerwinden in which he commanded the left wing of the republican army, and the fall of the Girondists, one of the parties of the French convention with whom he was united, became the reasons why Miranda was put in prison and brought to trial in Paris. Having regained his liberty after the fall of Robespierre in 1794, he went to England once more with the hope of obtaining help for his fatherland from the English minister Pitt, who had at his former visit shown a disposition to administer assistance for the promotion of Venezuela's independence. Nothing, however, having been accomplished after much soliciting, he returned to the United States.

In New York Miranda succeeded to interest a few American merchants sufficiently to advance the money that was necessary to buy two corvettes and other smaller vessels and to equip them. He also enlisted 200 men and with them sailed for Venezuela in the beginning of 1806, intending to land at the port of Coro. Captain-general Vasconcelos, however, was thoroughly advised and had made preparations to repel the invasion. Thus it happened that two Spanish brigs attacked Miranda's squadron when it steered into Venezuela's waters.

A desperate struggle ensued in which the revolutionary leader lost two ships and 60 men who were made prisoners. These men having been brought to trial, ten of them were condemned to hang. Vasconcelos had Miranda's effigy burned in Caracas and offered 30,000 pesos to any one who would deliver him in person or his head. The inquisition judges of Cartagena in New Granada solemnly declared him an enemy of God and of the king and unworthy to receive bread, fire, and protection. Miranda retired to the island of Trinity and being assisted by the English admiral A. Cochrane, he united 15 vessels and 500 volunteers in the English Antilles, with whom he sailed again for Venezuela. He landed without difficulty, occupied Coro, and circulated proclamations in which he called his compatriots to arms. The people of Venezuela, however, did not respond to his call. As his force was not sufficient to resist the 1500 men that were sent against him by the Spanish authorities, Miranda was once more obliged to withdraw. He tarried in the small island of Oruba from where he sent emissaries to Admiral Cochrane to solicit more forces. But the English of the Antilles denied him re-enforcements at this time, while Vasconcelos brought his army up to about 8000 men. Miranda thereupon went again to the English island of Trinity where he dismissed his troops and then returned to Europe, discouraged and dismayed, but still hoping for the occasion to give Spain an effective blow. The time for it did not tarry long.

In his European seclusion Francisco de Miranda organized a secret society, drew up firm resolutions, and trained the young men who were destined to become the brightest heroes in the South American revolution — Simon Bolivar of Venezuela and José de San Martin of Argentina. Theirs was a gigantic task, the liberation of a continent. In the quiet seclusion they imbibed the grand ideas we shall see them carry into effect in the awful struggle of independence.

THE LA PLATA COLONIES.

1618 to 1810.

It will be remembered that during the time of conquests Asuncion on the Paraguay river was the principal city in the southeastern section of the continent, that from there expeditions set out to found towns along the Paraguay and the Parana rivers, and that even the city of Buenos Aires received her permanent existence from Asuncion. But as Buenos Aires was most favorably situated, the town developed fast; and as it is a distance of 650 miles from the Paraguayan capital, it needed its own government. Thus the Spanish Court decreed in 1617 to create the government of La Plata and declared it independent of the Paraguayan government. The new Argentine government exercised control over five large provinces. The governors were usually selected from among the leaders of the Spanish army who had most distinguished themselves in the wars which the homeland waged in Italy and Flanders. Diego de Gongora was the first to be appointed governor of Buenos Aires and arrived in November, 1618. Of the sixteen governors appointed to the Argentine colony only one was born in the country, i. e. was a creole. The government of Tucuman had been established already in the year 1563 by the viceroy of Peru, and exercised jurisdiction also over all the territory of Cuyo which Chile claimed. Later when the Argentine colony became a viceroyship the territory of Tucuman was incorporated into it; but Chile maintained its authority over the district of Cuyo somewhat longer.

Prior to the colonial period already Governor Hernandarias of Asuncion had planned the submission of the Indians by disposing that they be brought under the influence of religious training. He had sent various Italian Jesuits to the territory which lies between the rivers Parana and Paraguay and which was inhabited by the Guaranies. On this Paraguayan terri-

tory the Jesuits built up a *great missionary enterprise* in the course of a long time, the most extensive and best managed enterprise that Catholic missionaries achieved in South America. At the beginning the Jesuits attracted the natives by means of coaxing and flattery, brought them into submission, and induced them to live in villages. A settlement in which a town existed and temples were erected, and in which the natives lived in a somewhat orderly manner, was called a *reduction*. The missionaries were so successful that they established thirty-two reductions in the wilderness of Paraguay and Uruguay, and it is reported that over 200,000 Indians lived and labored in these settlements. Seven of these reductions with 40,000 natives were east of the river Uruguay or on Uruguayan territory, which for a long time was called Banda Oriental. By means of their religious practices and wise regulations of labor the Jesuits made of their missions republican models, all of which having the same simple and well calculated organization. Each station was managed by four religionists: The *rector* who had the government in charge, the *instructor* who was the school-master and taught religion, the *dispenser* who received the harvests and saw to the maintenance of the natives, and the *assistant* whose special duty it was to study the Guarani language and to assist the rector in his manifold duties. Besides these officers there was a board, composed of natives only, in every reduction. It consisted of a chief, of judges and regents who saw to it that the dispositions of the rector were carried into effect. The latter decided all questions with great affability and from his decisions no appeal could be made. All the religionists stood under one *superior* who resided in Candelaria, the capital of the missions.

Life and labor was somewhat communistic in the reductions; for every man and woman labored for the community. To make the toil on the fields less hard for them, the fathers introduced many feasts. In the morning and evening at the tolling of the bell all the people gathered in the church to

bring thanks to the Creator. After the morning prayers all went in procession to their work, the image of the patron saint of the town being carried ahead, followed by the sound of the musical instruments. As the labor was moderate and interrupted so as to give the natives rest, they worked hardly seven hours a day. To break the monotony, splendid festivals were arranged that were followed by public rejoicings and succeeded one another without interruption. The harvests were placed in the storehouses of the community and with them the fathers fed and clothed all the Indians alike. The surplus of cotton, tobacco, hides, mate, and timber was taken to Buenos Aires and sold in exchange for tools, clothing, and other articles. — For the religious instruction of the natives the Jesuits published pious books in the Guarani language. They learned prayers and some articles of Catholic belief by heart. Many could read their language; but further knowledge they did not acquire.

There was one external reason for the good progress of these missions, namely the encomiendas which were established in all the Spanish colonies. To escape the forced labor, the contributions, the lash of the Spanish taxmasters, many Guaranesies went to the missions where they were kindly received and better treated. The Jesuits censured the encomenderos for their avarice and claimed that of Christianity they had only the name; while the encomenderos hated the missionaries, because they shielded the natives whom they wanted to work on their ranches. — There was another class of people that hated the missionaries and their work and apparently hated everybody and everything else; they were the *Mamelukes* who were descendants of Portuguese criminals and Indian women and were lower, more ferocious, and more barbarous than the mere natives. Portugal had formerly opened her jails and shipped her malefactors to Brazil. Now their offspring banded together and swept down upon the Paraguayan missions of the Jesuits and also upon the encomiendas of the Spaniards,

robbing, destroying, killing. The repeated raids of Mameluks bands obliged Father Montoga in 1631 to leave the towns in Guayrá and to migrate with more than 12,000 submissive Indians southward to the territory that lies between the Paraná and Uruguay rivers. There a number of towns were founded of which the principal one was Loreto. Through this last enterprise the province of missions came into existence which now belongs to the Argentine Republic. — 150 years the missions existed and a number of generations were trained and drilled in them during that time; but when at the close of that period the Jesuits were expelled, it was found that the natives, the product of their mission work, had not made any substantial progress in civil life. They were completely unable to govern themselves and returned to a barbarous way of living, as though they had never become familiar with civilized ways.

That the colonists of Paraguay might be protected against the invasions of northern Indians, a series of fortified towns was established between the southern borders of Bolivia and the river Paraná. Also in those northern regions missionary efforts were made. Francisco Solano, a Franciscan, who bore the fame of being an apostle of Peru, directed the work in those northern wilds and later came to Argentina with a large following of submissive natives.

Difficulties between the Spaniards and Portuguese arose. The latter had founded the *Sacramento colony* on the Uruguayan bank of the La Plata in the name of the king of Portugal. This Portuguese colony was located about 50 miles north of the locality of Montevideo, which whole region was claimed by the Argentinos. In 1680 the Argentine governor Joseph Garro dislodged them and sent their commander Lobo as prisoner to Lima where he died soon after. By treaty the colony was returned to Portugal. 24 years later Governor Inclan of Buenos Aires received the order from the viceroy of Lima to drive the Portuguese from Argentine soil and gave

as reason that the colony had for years disturbed the peace between the two nations. A strong force was dispatched in 1704 to attack the Sacramento colony, which, however, was defended heroically and taken only after a siege of six months. By the treaty of Utrecht in 1715 the colony was returned to Portugal for the second time. — The Portuguese, not yet contented with this colony, intended to fortify secretly also the place where somewhat later the city of Montevideo was founded. The rumor having reached Zabala in time, who was governor at Buenos Aires since 1717, he himself went at the head of a force to drive the Portuguese from that position. He was successful and he founded the city of Montevideo in the year 1726. Six families of Buenos Aires composed of thirty-three persons in all, moved to the new town. Among these first inhabitants of Montevideo was J. Anton Artigas from whom descended the celebrated leader of the Uruguayan revolution about a century later.

However, the difficulties between the Spaniards and Portuguese did not yet cease, but rather grew worse when an attempt of the two nations to adjust limits, failed. In 1756 Spain sent to the La Plata a force of 1000 soldiers under the command of *General Ceballos*, who drove the Portuguese out of the Sacramento colony and fortified the place. Then 1000 English and Portuguese soldiers arrived in three vessels and five transports and attacked Ceballos. He, however, repulsed them with a loss and set the ship Lord Clive on fire which was lost with all on board. But in the adjustment of the peace at Paris in 1763 it was stipulated that the colony of Sacramento again return to Portugal and that the Spaniards hold the territory Rio Grande which today is a Brazilian province. — In the year 1777 the fight with the Portuguese was again renewed; Ceballos took possession of the colony once more. He then departed for Rio Grande, but having arrived at Maldonado, he received the news of the agreement made between Spain and Portugal. According to this the Portuguese should

possess the island of Santa Catalina and the Spaniards be masters of the Banda Oriental with the Sacramento colony, which had already gained a renown.

The *expulsion of the Jesuits* in 1767 from the La Plata countries took place simultaneously with their removal from Chile, Peru, and New Granada. Here we wish to record that from Paraguay and vicinity and from Tucuman 359 Jesuit fathers were expelled and embarked for Cadiz, Spain. Their positions were occupied by friars of other orders, and with the income from their properties schools were supported. Their mission work, as stated, was lost.

The past rivalries with the Portuguese induced Charles III., king of Spain, in 1776 to raise the La Plata possessions to a viceroyship and to send the most formidable expedition to Buenos Aires that ever had left Europe for America. It consisted of 12 vessels and 100 transport boats, carrying 9000 soldiers. *Peter Ceballos* who had been governor for some time, became the first viceroy. The viceroyship comprised the territory of which the Argentine Republic of today consists, and also Upper Peru, or Bolivia, Paraguay, and the Banda Oriental, or Uruguay; that is to say it comprised about the fourth part of South America. The greatest benefit Ceballos bestowed upon the viceroyship, was that he declared the trade between Spain and the LaPlata free. — As late as 1801 the first paper was published in Buenos Aires; its name was *Telegrafo* and it was but one year old when Viceroy Pino suspended it. Soon after Manual Belgrano edited another paper which he called *Correo, i. e. Post.* *M. Belgrano* was a young lawyer and secretary of the newly instituted consulate. He had labored for the success of free trade and then became active for the political emancipation of his country.

English Invasions. The close, though forced, relation of Napoleon with Spain aroused the old grudge of the English who began hostilities against Spain and her colonies in the year 1804, without a declaration of war. Four frigates which were

sailing out of the mouth of the La Plata and taking their course towards Spain under the wings of peace, were captured and plundered by the English. More than 3,000,000 pesos and a valuable cargo was the booty of this robbery. In view of such a sudden and unlawful attack the Spanish cabinet declared war against England in the same year. England then dispatched an army of 6650 men under the command of Sir David Baird to take possession of the Dutch colony of cape of Good Hope at the southern extremity of Africa. But soon the report reached Buenos Aires that the English squadron had touched the coast of Brazil. The Argentine viceroy *Sobremonte* suspected that it would sail to the La Plata and, believing Montevideo to be the only vulnerable point, he went there with almost the entire force that was at his command, leaving Buenos Aires unprotected. As soon as Sobremonte learned the true objective point of the English squadron which actually sailed to the South African cape and captured the Dutch colony, he returned to Buenos Aires. General Baird, however, believing that the Spanish colonies would cast off the old yoke in case England came to their aid in force, sent 1,635 men of disembarkation under General W. Carr Berresford to the La Plata. When the English landed and marched against Buenos Aires, Sobremonte was confounded and did not know how to take a single effective step to oppose Berresford, who easily overcame the poorly armed force that was sent to impede his march. He entered the city and took possession of the fort. Viceroy Sobremonte, in the mean time, had fled with his family, leaving the capital to its fate. Berresford seized the public funds, taking 500,000 pesos, and made the civil authorities and corporations give the oath of fealty; however, not all submitted to this method of the intruder. Naval Captain James Liniers and young John Pueyrredon, resenting the offense of the invader, decided to throw off the new yoke that had been laid upon them by force and planned for the fight. Liniers circulated in the city what means were necessary for

the attack, and without loss of time went to Montevideo to ask the there commanding general for help. This was conceded and Liniers returned to Buenos Aires with 1,145 men who were joined by many volunteers. Camping near the capital he sent word to Berresford, demanding surrender; but the latter replied that he would defend himself. The Argentine commander entered the city and, with the assistance of the inhabitants who fired from windows and flat roofs of houses, forced the English to retreat and soon to surrender (August 12th, 1806). While now the authorities of Buenos Aires gave the political and military command to Liniers, Sobremonte went to Montevideo to defend that place, for it was threatened by the English.

Berresford reported to the English government both the capture of Buenos Aires and the succeeding surrender on his part and asked at the same time for more troops to attack the viceroy's capital again. Forces equal in number to those with whom he had arrived the first time, were granted him. These having reached him the English took Montevideo at the beginning of the year 1807. Viceroy Sobremonte again took to flight shamefully and soon after was suspended from office by popular vote and sent to Spain. Three months after the capture of Montevideo General Whitelock arrived and united all the English forces for the purpose of again attacking Buenos Aires. His army which was 9,880 men strong, landed at Ensenyada in June, 1807. Buenos Aires not being idle had organized an army of 6,860 men who marched out to defend the passage of a rivulet. The English avoided the attack, crossed the river at another place, and took a position in Miserere. Here the first skirmish took place in which the Argentine forces commanded by Liniers were defeated, whereupon they took a position in Chacarita. The fate of Buenos Aires seemed to be sealed; for the enemy was before its gates and the entrance unobstructed. However, the man of the hour is at hand; *Judge Alzaga* exhibits the energy that overcomes

all difficulties. He has ditches opened in the streets that lead to the plaza, places artillery in them, organizes the defense in all important places, and awaits the attack. At daybreak on July 5th the English columns begin to move and a bloody combat soon rages in the city's streets. On all sides where the enemy appears he is repulsed with the valor of heroes, in a battle whose furies roar the whole day through. As night falls the English have suffered a loss of 1,130 dead and wounded men and of 1,500 prisoners, 120 of whom were officers. When the battle was renewed the following morning, Whitelock soon lost all hope of success and capitulated. He promised to evacuate Buenos Aires and vicinity within forty-eight hours, to return to Montevideo, and to withdraw all his troops from the La Plata river within two months. He kept his word. This splendid victory was applauded in Spain and all her colonies. The Argentinos who alone had defeated a well armed veteran army, then began to feel their own importance and strength and to look with confidence for the approaching revolution of independence.

James Liniers, though he was of French descent, had spent thirty years in Spanish services, had accomplished much for that cause, and was, therefore, elected viceroy of the La Plata colony by popular vote. The Spanish party, however, which was controlled in Buenos Aires by Alzaga, the hero of the last defense, and in Montevideo by Elio, withheld him their confidence, because they believed him inclined, through nationalism, towards Napoleon who at that time was extending his power over Europe; while the creoles of Argentina defended him against the unjust plots of which he became the victim. The Spanish party gained their point in the contention before the Court, and the General Assembly of Madrid appointed Sr. Cisneros viceroy in 1809. Cisneros was one of the naval commanders who had brought some glory out of the loss of the memorable battle of Trafalgar and became the eleventh and *the last viceroy* of the La Plata colony. His first

official acts alienated him the sympathies of the people. He ruled violently, ordering the imprisonment of popular young Pueyrredon, dissolving the provincial assemblies, and approving only the acts of the Montevideo assembly which was royalistic in sentiment. This violent way of procedure, together with the conditions of Spain and especially of the royal family which were dominated by Napoleon, augmented the prestige and the number of the creole party. In 1809 the latter appointed *a committee of seven* who constituted the board of directors. It was their business to watch over the American interests and to direct, in case of necessity, the work of emancipation; young Manuel Belgrano was chairman of this committee. The continuation follows in the period of revolution.



A TILTING STONE
Found in the Argentine Republic

BRAZIL AS COLONY.

1577 to 1760.

The history of Brazil during the colonial times consists largely in bloody wars which the Portuguese were obliged to carry on not simply with the Indians, but with the Dutch and the French also whose endeavor it was to seize sections of the vast and rich Brazilian domains. The Jesuit fathers were engaged in missionary labors among the natives and prevented that the Indians were reduced to slavery and oppressed by the Portuguese. The province Sao Paulo in the southern section of the country was the principal field of their labors. They founded towns which today are flourishing cities, opened schools for the instruction of the natives, and trained them to appreciate agriculture. Father Anton Vieira especially dedicated himself to the defense of the rights of the Indians and brought their just complaints before the Court. But the Portuguese encomenderos who saw their ambitious projects curtailed, disregarded the royal orders that were issued in favor of the natives, pursued the Jesuits, and forced them to seek protection among the savages of the interior.

In the year 1580 a cardinal who had become King Henry of Portugal, died and *Philip II. of Spain*, son of Charles I., conquered that country. Portugal and Brazil were incorporated in the Spanish dominions and remained under Spanish control 60 years. The powerful Spanish sovereign, carried on wars with various European nations, principally with the Dutch. The wars with Holland became the reason why the Dutch attacked the Spanish colonies and why some of them went out to plunder and appear in history as pirates. Thus the Brazilian towns, Bahia and Olinda, successively fell into their hands. After a prolonged warfare the Dutch prince *John M. Nassau* was appointed captain-general of Brazil and, having landed with a numerous army, founded Pernambuco. He succeeded

to bring the larger part of northern Brazil, from the mouth of the San Francisco to that of the Amazon, under his control and, by founding cities and enacting laws, he made his conquest sure and firm. Under his administration which lasted only from 1637 to 1643 his domains attained great prosperity; after his departure they began to decline. In 1640 the Portuguese in the homeland rose against the Spanish domination and, having regained their independence, they placed John IV. of Braganza on the throne. Thereupon the Portuguese waged a nine years' war with the Dutch to regain their lost domains in Brazil in which they forced them to acknowledge their superiority in 1654 and to evacuate Brazil.

After these long wars the commerce of Brazil was monopolized by a Portuguese company which was under the obligation to exclude contraband goods. But the resources of the company did not suffice to prevent *the French* from attacking Rio de Janeiro. After half a century of difficulties, in 1710, the French admiral Duclerc attacked that city with 1000 men, but was totally defeated, 500 soldiers being killed and wounded and the rest made prisoners. Duclerc himself was assassinated in prison. This crime and the insult of the disaster brought the revenge of the French over Brazil. The following year the celebrated French admiral Digné-Truan left for Brazil with an expedition of 16 ships and 4500 soldiers to avenge the blood of their comrades. Rio de Janeiro, being abandoned by the Portuguese troops, was taken without resistance; for its ransom a considerable sum of money had to be paid.

Besides these invasions and the constant wars with the Indians, the Portuguese of Brazil sustained bloody fights with the Spaniards of Buenos Aires on account of possessions in the La Plata regions; for they claimed the possession of the Banda Oriental, or Uruguay, where they maintained the Sacramento colony. As we have learned, this country with the colony was after years of struggle definitely assigned to the Spaniards by the treaty stipulations of 1777.

The wealth of the magnificent colony of Brazil was at first but little appreciated; the Hollanders were the first who spread its fame in Europe. Agriculture and industry converted Brazil readily into a source of wealth. In the north sugar cane, rice, cotton, and tobacco were raised and the wood "brazil" gathered. Towards the close of the 18th century the planters in the south began to raise coffee which today is produced very abundantly. In the central sections which are mountainous mining was carried on and yielded large quantities of gold and diamonds. In 1720 the district Geraes, because it was rich in precious metals, was made a separate province and reserved for the crown. Soon valuable diamond deposits were discovered in the creeks of the Serro do Frio mountains. The fifth part of the products of private mines and placer mining, which was due the government, together with some other contributions, yielded the crown about 4,000,-000 pesos annually. Foreigners could not own mines in Brazil, and commerce was at first monopolized by privileged companies. The long distance between the settlements and the absence of roads made the development of industries difficult. Indeed, as long as the government was intolerant and fostered a monopoly similar to that of the Spanish, Brazil did not develop and progress properly.

For administrative purposes Brazil was divided into sixteen provinces which constituted a viceroyship; each province was governed by a captain. The viceroy at first resided in Bahia and in 1763 he established his residence in Rio de Janeiro. The viceroys and captains were subjected to regulations that were similar to those of the Spaniards; viz., they were prohibited to marry, to acquire realty property, to make presents etc. In case of death of an official the government was exercised by a commission which was composed of the bishop, the supreme judge, and an army officer of highest rank. The standing army consisted of 16,000 men.

Under the government of King Joseph II. a new era began

to dawn for Brazil in 1759. His celebrated minister *Marquis Pombal* in that year *introduced* important *reforms* in Brazil which were beneficial to the colony and redounded to the welfare of the home government. He gave impulse to commerce, declared the Indians free, alleviated the sad condition of the African slaves, appointed men born in Brazil, creoles, to higher public offices, encouraged immigration, erected fortifications and public buildings, opened schools, and expelled the Jesuits from all the domains of Portugal. Three of these reforms; namely, impulse to commerce, creoles appointed to higher offices, immigration encouraged, were far in advance of the times and never actively taken in consideration by the Spaniards. Here the reasons lie why the Spanish colonies revolted early and why the Brazilians were well content with monarchical rule until a late date. — Towards the close of the 18th century Brazil had a population of 3,000,000 people, exclusive of the savage Indians. Some more than 200,000 of the population had immigrated from Europe, about 800,000 were submissive Indians, and the rest Negro slaves, who had been brought from Africa to work in the mines and to cultivate the fields. According to this report there were 2,000,000 African slaves in the Brazilian colony.

THE GUIANAS.

1580 to 1910.

The Spaniards must have also settled very early in the northeastern section of the continent which was called Guiana. For when the Dutch began to establish trading stations on the banks of the Pomeroon and other rivers in 1580, they were attacked by Spaniards and speedily driven out. Only in 1602 they obtained a foothold on the banks of the river Essequibo. During the 17th and the early part of the 18th century the Dutch were frequently harassed by incursions of the French and by internal insurrections. Towards the close of the 18th century the feelings of the inhabitants had become strongly influenced by a desire to place themselves under British sovereignty, and in 1796 effect was given to that desire by the cession of the colony to an expedition under Major-General Whyte, which was finally confirmed by the peace of 1814.

Thus *British Guiana* was established. Its area may be stated at 76,000 square miles, a territory much larger than England and Wales combined. But if the claims of the Venezuelan and Brazilian governments respectively are admitted, the British portion will be reduced to something above 12,000 square miles and will become the smallest of the European colonies in that region. There are but two towns, properly speaking: Georgetown, the capital, and New Amsterdam. Agriculture is not well developed. The culture of cotton and coffee was begun; cotton is not raised at all now and coffee only for home purposes. All available resources have been concentrated on the production of sugar and rum. The timber trade, however, has become important. In the coast region there are 130 sugar estates, 70 provision estates, 80 cattle farms, about 20 coffee and 10 cocoa-nut farms. The population in 1891 was 287,981.

Dutch Guiana. As stated, the Dutch established them-

selves in Guiana very early. When a section of their territory was conceded to the English in 1796, they still retained possession of a large colony. At present they hold 46,000 square miles, nearly four times the area of the Netherlands. In 1893 the population was 62,469 persons. — The rivers all empty into the Atlantic; the most considerable is the Surinam which has a course of 300 miles. On its bank Paramaribo, the capital, lies, about 10 miles distant from its mouth. Only a small part of the colony has been explored and only about 30,000 acres are under cultivation, which are all along the coastline. The products and exports are naturally the same as those of British Guiana, adjoining it on the west.

French Guiana. This lies east of the Dutch colony, so that the latter is between it and the British. France occupied that territory in 1633. Its area is 31,000 square miles, including some islands near the coast, of which the principal one is Cayenne on which the capital bearing the same name, is situated. In 1886 the population of French Guiana was 26,905 and in 1889 it was 25,600. As the colony is bounded on the northeast by the Atlantic, it has the trade-winds of the ocean which bring a temperate moisture. The thermometer seldom rises above 90 degrees or falls below 75 degrees. The chief products and exports are choice woods for ornamental purposes, rice, maize, coffee, cacao, sugar, cotton, nutmeg, cloves, and pepper. In accordance with an imperial decree of 1854 Guiana has been made the principal seat of the penal settlements of France which is maintained at Cayenne at the national charge. A recent French budget was charged with the sum of a little less than \$27,000 for ordinary expenses of government in Guiana and a little less than \$400,000 for the penal settlement of Cayenne.

As the colonists of the three Guianas did not revolt and still continue to live in colonial relations to the respective European countries, we can not refer to them in the following periods of this history.

DIVISION III
MODERN SOUTH AMERICA

1810 to 1912

MODERN times were introduced into the continent by the revolutionary movements. In a tenacious struggle of fourteen years the colonies broke the chains of Spanish despotism. The emancipated countries established their own governments, which are republican, unitary or federal, and opened their doors to modern thought and progress. Though the republics accepted modern inventions and methods, yet one who has lived in the United States, feels on the southern continent that the masses of the people do not yet enjoy true liberty, because their consciences and sentiments are still under the sway of the prevailant power that has exerted its influence over them now four centuries. Periods VI. and VII. of this history comprise Modern South America.

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PERIOD VI

REVOLUTION AND INDEPENDENCE

1810 to 1826

PROSPECTIVE VIEW OF THE PERIOD.

THE servitude of the colonies could not last forever; sooner or later their emancipation had to be accomplished. Various causes were bringing this result about, which Count Aranda himself, the prime minister of Charles III., had predicted as natural and unavoidable.

The colonies of North America set the example when in 1776, under the guidance and leadership of the illustrious George Washington, they created an independent federal republic. Soon after, the great French revolution of 1789 proclaimed the rights of man and the sacred principles of liberty, equality, and fraternity. The revolutionists established the republic in France and soon engaged in lamentable excesses under the regime of terror. A successful military leader, Napoleon Bonaparte, seized the reins of government and had himself proclaimed emperor of the French. In the course of time Napoleon turned things in Europe upside down; but he could not destroy the great principles of revolution which had been propagated by the writings of Montesquieu, Voltaire, Rousseau, and other revolutionary philosophers. As those principles could not entirely be concealed from the Spanish American colonists, they fomented amongst them the ideas of liberty and reform.

Since the close of the eighteenth century seditious movements had appeared in various colonies, forerunners of the great revolution. The loss of the Spanish fleet which the English destroyed in the battle of Trafalgar in 1805, produced an effect in the colonies that favored revolt. The old rivalry between the Spaniards and Creoles brought a condition of

affairs about which constantly aroused agitations that were apt to cause uprisings. That the revolution might break out generally, only one occasion was necessary. This occasion came in

THE SCANDALS OF THE SPANISH COURT.

Though Napoleon had achieved a long series of triumphs, yet he had not been able to do anything against the British, because they lived isolated beyond the sea. As the Portuguese did not wish to forfeit their alliance with England, Napoleon purposed to send an army to subdue their country. At that time Charles IV., unworthy successor of Charles III., was king of Spain, though in reality dull Manuel Godoy ruled. Godoy had been an officer of the guard whom scandalizing Queen Maria Louisa had elevated to the position of a prime minister and whom she had given the title prince of peace. The heir to the throne, Prince Ferdinand, conspired against the favorite and lived in constant quarrels with his parents. In such circumstances of the royal family Napoleon bargained with Godoy, the minister, and obtained from him permission to have a French army march through Spain to fight in Portugal. But the French troops, or at least a division of them, took the road to Madrid. Then the people declared themselves against the favorite and the court, and Charles IV. was forced to abdicate in favor of his son, Ferdinand VII. Soon the dethroned king alleged his resignation had been forced upon him and made endeavors to recover the crown which, however, the son refused to return. Apparently wishing to settle the quarrels of the royal family, Napoleon proposed an interview in French Bayona, north of the Pyrenees. The king, the queen, and Godoy on one side and Ferdinand VII. on the other met there in Napoleon's presence and brought all sorts of recriminations. The latter passed the judgment that both, the father and the son, renounce the Spanish crown and that it be given to his own brother, Joseph Bonaparte. Ferdinand VII. and his par

ents were retained as prisoners in different places of France. The son became an unworthy prince when he declared that he contentedly accepted his retention in the rich castle and park of Valencay. He went so far as to adulate Napoleon and to celebrate the defeats of his countrymen who were shedding their blood to regain his liberty and his throne.

The perfidies of Napoleon and the imprisonment of Ferdinand VII. aroused a general indignation in Spain against the French who occupied the capital. The Spaniards who were faithful to their king organized governmental juntas in the various provinces and created a central assembly in Sevilla. When the French had dispersed this assembly a council of regency replaced it and established itself in Cadiz where also the court or chamber of representatives met. It was the duty of the regency to govern Spain and her colonies during the imprisonment of well beloved Ferdinand and to organize the resistance against the French invaders. A bloody war began in 1808 and lasted until 1813. At first the Spaniards obtained a victory at Bailen; but the French soon occupied the larger part of the peninsula and kept Joseph Bonaparte on the throne. The Spaniards called him Pepe Botella because he was fond of the good wines of Spain. In the mean time the British had defeated the French in Portugal and were asked by the Spanish regency to assist them in their struggle against the common enemy. The English general Wellington became the victor; he defeated the French in a number of battles and drove them from the peninsula. Simultaneously Napoleon was defeated in Russia and in Germany. Only then, in 1814, he liberated Ferdinand VII. who, though he recovered the crown of Spain, lost the American colonies forever.

What effects had these events upon the colonies? The invasion of Spain and the imprisonment of the king became the occasion in the colonies to revolt. The junta of Sevilla and the regency of Cadiz purposed to exercise in the colonies the authority that belonged to the king; but the Americans ob-

jected. They neither wanted to acknowledge Joseph Bonaparte as ruler nor obey the Spanish junta or regency. They claimed that the provinces of the monarchy in America had the same rights as the provinces in Spain, to govern themselves by means of proper and particular executive juntas during the imprisonment of the king. In all the colonies there were two organized parties — the peninsular Spaniards, high civil and church authorities, who demanded obedience to the junta of Sevilla and afterwards to the regency of Cadiz; and the American born or creole party which did not want to recognize those Spanish juntas, but demanded their own juntas to be elected from among the colonists themselves. Will the reader understand that the revolutionary leaders purposed absolute independence from the beginning, but did not divulge their secret purpose until later, having to contend with very much opposition from their own people. They made the assertion known: We shall obey the king when he is released; but in the mean time we will govern with subjection to nobody. These agitations brought about the revolutionary spirit of 1810 which permeated almost all the Spanish American colonies from Mexico to the La Plata and to Chile. Noteworthy is the concerted action throughout such an immense territory, fifteen colonies on more than a continent. While the creoles established their national juntas of government and began to reform the colonial institutions, the peninsular party resisted, and the war began. Then the king had been in confinement two years. As in the homeland the Spaniards fought for their independence from the French, so in America the creoles fought for their independence from Spain herself. Many battles had been fought in many colonies, blood had reddened the American soil, when Ferdinand VII. returned to Spain in 1814. The creoles did not feel disposed then to submit to that monarch who was vile and despotic and even prosecuted those who had fought for his liberty.

The revolutionists had to fight not only the troops which

Spain maintained in the colonies and sent there, but also the general ignorance of the common people. For many the revolution was a sin against the king and against God, and the priests fostered this belief. On the other hand the revolutionists were lacking the elements of war; they had neither arms, nor ammunitions, nor money to buy them. Many leaders had neither preparation for nor experience in campaign life. Nevertheless their firm purpose overcame the difficulties and wrought wonders. In the first half of the period the revolutionists gained decided advantages. But the expulsion of the French from Spain and the subsequent return of Ferdinand VII. to Madrid enabled the latter to proceed with greater forces against the revolting colonies and the revolution was defeated everywhere in 1814 and 1815. However, the leaders continued to battle on, warfare became a custom; victories were won and results achieved. The revolution of the liberals in Spain in 1820 which had been provoked by the king's despotism, impeded the departure of an army that had been organized to fight the colonists, wherefore the Spanish fighting forces in the colonies were more readily defeated. Then also the intervention of a French army in 1823 to overthrow the liberals of Spain and to re-establish the despotic power of Ferdinand VII. separated even the Spaniards in America from the Spanish crown and thus favored the revolution.

The great leaders of the South American emancipation were San Martin and O'Higgins in the south, and Simon Bolivar and Sucre in the north of the continent. Having liberated their own countries in hard fought warfares, the victorious armies of Argentina and Chile and of Colombia joined their forces in Peru, the center of Spanish power in South America. There celebrated Marshal Sucre, subaltern to Liberator Bolivar, put the seal on South America's independence in the memorable battle of Ayacucho December 9th, 1824. The Spanish cause died there and then; and the nations began to

live new lives. When the young republics sought recognition at foreign courts, new dangers arose.

After the fall of Napoleon, the sovereigns of Russia, Austria, and Prussia organized *the Holy Alliance* with the object of fighting liberal ideas wherever they might be found and of restoring absolute governments. Spain, impotent to subdue her revolting colonies, asked this alliance for mediation and assistance and the pope for moral support against the new republics. But the diplomacy of the United States of America, supported by England, defeated the plans of the Holy Alliance. In 1822 the United States explicitly recognized the independence of the new republics. In the following year the king of France, in accord with the Holy Alliance, dispatched that army against the liberals of Spain and placed Ferdinand VII. again on his despotic throne. But when then the machinations of the Holy Alliance were directed against the Latin American republics, President Monroe of the United States declared, that his nation would consider any European intervention in the government of the new republics as an act of hostility against herself. His maxim was: "America for the Americans!" The attitude of the United States and the complete and final victory of Ayacucho over the Spaniards lifted England out of her vacillations. This nation, under the guidance of her able minister George Canning also recognized the independence of the new American states. By and by the other European powers did the same. X

After this somewhat lengthy prospective review of the South American revolution, after this birds-eye view of a continental transformation, we shall present the struggle of each colony for an independent existence briefly. Of various countries we must first relate the revolution only and afterwards the independence. And grand were many movements, and interesting was the tenacious struggle. Yes, fascinating are the victories of liberty and independence.

REVOLUTION OF VENEZUELA.

1808 to 1815.

Two French commissioners arrived at Caracas in July, 1808, to demand the recognition of Joseph Bonaparte as king of Spain. The people on their part demanded the formation of a national junta which should govern in the name of Ferdinand VII. The Spanish party of Venezuela opposed both plans and succeeded at last in having the authority of the junta of Sevilla of Spain recognized. Soon after, a new captain-general, *Vicente Emparan*, arrived at Caracas to govern the colony. He was a man of little tact and through violent actions increased the dissatisfaction of the creole party, and that at a time when it became known that the French troops in Spain had dispersed the junta of Sevilla. The municipal board, or cabildo, of Caracas met next day, which was Thursday of holy week, to attend the religious exercises in the cathedral in a body. While they were on the way to church groups of creole partisans urged them to return to the chamber to attempt the formation of a national junta of government. Having consented they returned and organized the junta which was revolutionary in character. They were about to appoint Governor Emparan himself their president, when J. C. Madarriaga, who was from Chile and a priest of the Caracas cathedral, appeared in the chamber and very vehemently opposed that nomination. His words were applauded by the people and Emparan was prevailed upon not to accept the position. Having been voted out he left for the United States. That same day, April 19th, 1810, the cabildo was made the governing junta, which began its work by dictating measures of far-reaching influence. They called a congress of representatives, organized troops, stored up arms, reduced the contributions, opened schools of mathematics, prohibited the introduction of slaves, declared commerce free, and sent emissaries to solicit

the protection of England and the United States. For England a commission of three left whose spokesman was Simon Bolivar, who then was a colonel in the army and later became a very prominent figure in the revolution.

However, the western provinces, Coro and Maracaibo, were not disposed to recognize the new government. And the regency of Cadiz in Spain declared the Venezuelans rebels, decreed the blockade of their coast, and appointed F. Miyares governor of Maracaibo. The Venezuelan junta resolved to resist and appointed *Francisco de Miranda* chief of the patriot army. Miranda was the former revolutionist who had made several attempts, had failed, and retired to England, where he had organized the secret society and where he had waited for new opportunities. He had now returned to Venezuela. In spite of their difficult position the revolutionists thought of taking a daring step by declaring the independence of Venezuela ere long. The first congress consisting of 44 representatives, had met in the mean time. After a lengthy and heated discussion they declared that the united provinces of Venezuela are forever free and independent (July 5th, 1811). The Spanish party conspired. A first attempt of opposition was suffocated and sixteen of the conspirators were shot. The junta then sent General Miranda to the west to subdue the royalists who had seized the city of Valencia. After several attacks the city surrendered at discretion. In the meantime Congress discussed the constitution which should be given the new state. Inspired by the example of the United States the Congress organized a federal republic composed of seven provinces. The government should consist of two national chambers and one executive power to be exercised by persons who were to be elected indirectly.

DANGERS OF THE YOUNG REPUBLIC.

The Spaniards still occupied the provinces of Maracaibo and Coro in the west and that of Guayana in the east; from

the latter they made raids to the defenseless towns of the lower Orinoco. The war that had been carried on for some time, had paralyzed commerce and industry, the soldiers were poorly paid, and all began to feel bad. In this critical situation a reinforcement of troops and money came from Puerto Rico to the royalists of Coro. The vessel's captain, *Domingo Monteverde*, marched at the head of 230 men to Valencia which lies on the way to Caracas. The patriotic government on their part had 3000 men at their disposal, who, however, were in the eastern provinces where they should impede the raids of the royalists. But instead of impeding them, they were after many movements defeated. On the day of this defeat another event occurred that threatened the very existence of the republic. A frightful earthquake destroyed Caracas and other towns in March of 1812, burying 20,000 persons under the ruins. Only the provinces occupied by the Spaniards escaped the misfortunes of the quake. This circumstance and the day, holy Thursday, just two years after the first national junta had been inaugurated, gave the clergy the occasion to preach to the terrified people that the earthquake was a punishment of God for the sin of tearing away from Spain and the king. The reaction in favor of the Spaniards obtained great force.

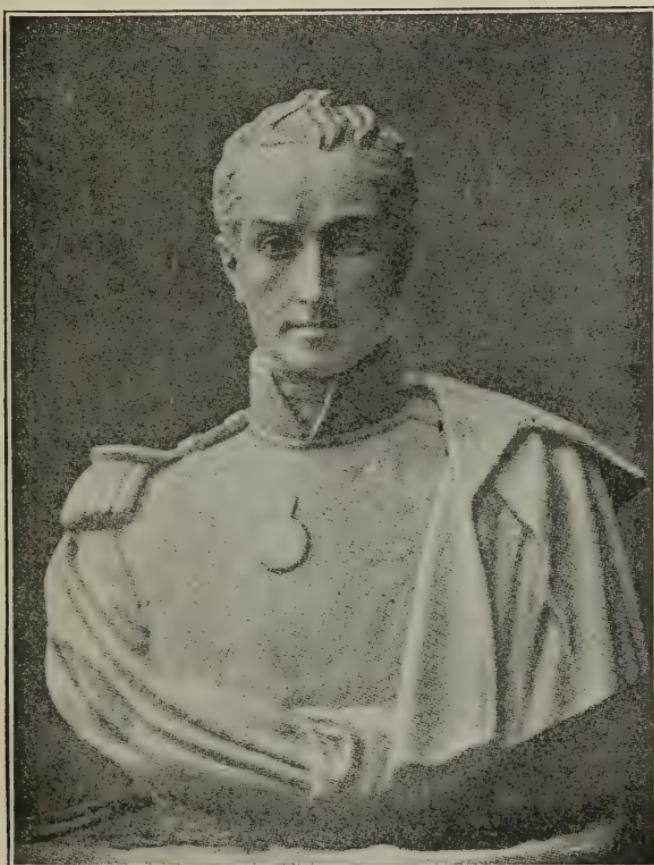
Monteverde arrived at Valencia where Miranda scarcely had 2000 soldiers, and these were discouraged. The patriotic chief considering himself lost, entered into a direful agreement with Monteverde. He agreed to surrender his arms under the conditions that the royalist chief prosecute no one for his opinions and that he permit every one who wanted to leave the country. Monteverde entered Caracas four days later, while Miranda, who was accused of cowardice and treason by his own patriotic friends, went with a few companions to the neighboring port of Guaira to embark. The moment they wanted to sail the commander of the port received orders from Monteverde to arrest them, the perfidious Spanish leader failing to comply with his promise, and disposed that eight prin-

pal patriotic leaders be sent to Spain where they could expect to be remitted to the African towers of Ceuta for a long imprisonment. All Venezuela was thus again submitted to Spanish rule (July 31st, 1812). F. Miranda was retained in the jail of Puerto Cabello and later in jails of Porto Rico. He demanded the fulfilling of the articles of capitulation, but all in vain. He was taken to Cadiz, Spain, where the first revolutionist of South America and unfortunate general died four years later in a jail of that city.

Enraptured by his triumphs Monteverde denied Captain-General Miyares obedience and was successful in his endeavor to obtain from the Spanish regency the appointment to the captaincy with the title pacifier of Venezuela. His mode of pacifying was to exercise horrible persecutions. In a short time the number of patriots he had arrested counted 1500. The imprisonments were followed by the confiscation of properties; hence, they became a lucrative business. These revenges which were exercised most vigorously in the eastern provinces, provoked a new insurrection there. The rich and daring young men, James Marinyo, M. Piar, and the two brothers Bermudez, with forty companions who had found refuge on a small island near Trinidad, crossed over to the near-by coast and took the town Guiria which was defended by 300 Spaniards. When their forces had increased they went towards the west and captured the city Manturin. There Marinyo and Piar repulsed the vigorous attacks of the royalists, who had been exceedingly cruel, having spared neither women nor children nor old folks. Then Monteverde left Caracas with 2000 soldiers to lay siege to Manturin; but the patriots repulsed and dispersed them (May, 1813). At that time the revolution also spread in the distant western provinces, adjacent to New Granada.

Among the revolutionists who escaped the persecutions of Monteverde figured *Simon Bolivar*, a young colonel, who was destined to become the most illustrious leader of the South

American revolution. He was born in Caracas in the year 1783 and belonged to a rich and influential family of that city. His education Bolivar acquired mostly in Europe and he trav-



SIMON BOLIVAR

Liberator of the Northern Half of South America
† 1830

eled in his college years extensively in England, France, and Italy. In London he met Miranda whose secret society he joined and who was constantly active for his country's liberty. While Bolivar was in Paris he witnessed some of the closing

events of the French revolution. In 1809 he visited the United States where he had the opportunity of studying the methods of a free government. When in company with Miranda Bolivar returned to his native land it was with the firm purpose to labor and fight with him for the independence of Venezuela and of all South America. So Bolivar was on the home soil when the outbreak occurred in 1810 and received a colonel's commission from the revolutionary junta. When Miranda was defeated by Monteverde at Valencia and the patriotic government collapsed, Bolivar fled to the island of Curacao where he embarked with a few companions for New Granada to offer his services to the patriots of Cartagena who fought the royalists of Santa Marta at the time.

A French adventurer, *Peter Labutet*, waged war against the royalists in the region of the lower Magdalena river. While Labutet took the city of Santa Marta, Bolivar at the head of a division undertook a campaign up the Magdalena. He fought the royalists wherever he found them, captured their towns, and cleared the whole province of Magdalena from enemies. Then Bolivar continued his campaign victoriously towards the east until he reached his native land early in 1813. The New Granadian congress made Bolivar a citizen of their country and a brigadier-general of their army and authorized him to march with Granadian troops to liberate Venezuela. Followed by only 500 men Bolivar entered upon a campaign against the royalists of his own country, who still had 6000 men at their command. His forces increased on his march in Venezuela, but the royalists defeated a column of 200 patriots in Barinas and shot their commander and seven companions. Bolivar divided his army into two sections, intrusting the command of the one to Colonel J. F. Rivas and himself commanding the other section, and gave the order to march upon Caracas. The two columns passed victoriously through Merida and Trujillo. In the latter city Bolivar heard of the atrocities with which the royalists proceeded in the eastern provinces

where Marinyo and Piar operated. He then published his celebrated proclamation: "War to death to the royalists." The rest of the campaign was a series of triumphs, while Rivas defeated the royalists twice and united his division with Bolívar's. With about 2000 men the latter attacked Monteverde near Valencia July 31st, 1813 and won a splendid victory. Seven days later he held his triumphant entrance into Caracas, terminating thus a campaign of about three months in which he had covered 600 miles over mountains and through rivers, across marshes and plains and had fought fifteen pitched battles. Of all Venezuela the Spaniards held Puerto Cabello only; for in the east the patriots had also gained great advantages, as Marinyo had taken even the strongholds of Cumana and Barcelona.

Bolívar then undertook to besiege Monteverde at Puerto Cabello, but soon found it expedient to withdraw, because the royalists had just received a fresh re-enforcement of 1200 men from Spain. As Bolívar retreated the Spaniards started to pursue him, but were twice defeated on the way to Caracas whither Bolívar returned. The council and authorities of the capital appointed him captain-general of the army and gave him the *title of Liberator*.

Monteverde was accused of dullness by his own officers and obliged to surrender the command, wherefore the Spanish government appointed J. M. Cajigal captain-general of Venezuela. Bolívar was entrenched near Valencia with 1800 men and attacked by Boves; but he repulsed all attacks. The ammunition of the patriots was at a certain distance and guarded by but fifty men who were under the New Granadian captain *Anton Ricaurte*. Boves wanted to take the ammunition and sent a heavy force. As Ricaurte could neither hope for assistance nor offer battle, he quickly made a heroic resolve. He ordered his companions to withdraw and then waited for the Spaniards to enter the house. Then a frightful explosion shook the neighborhood and Ricaurte, all the Span-

iards, and the entire building blew up. The patriotic captain had set fire to the powder and had perished with all his enemies.

Marinyo approached with 3500 patriots to assist Bolivar. Then the liberator marched to attack the Spanish army which Cajigal commanded and won another splendid victory on the plains of Carabobo. All the artillery of the enemy, 500 rifles, 400 horses, 8 banners, and a large number of prisoners fell into the hands of the patriots, while the latter had but 12 men killed and 40 wounded (May, 1814).

About this time Ferdinand VII. returned to Spain from his captivity. The royalists found encouragement thereby and could hope for more re-enforcements, while the patriots felt the hardships of the war and numerous desertions began to take place. *Boves* having been re-enforced, then began to march against Caracas at the head of 8000 soldiers. Bolivar and Marinyo commanded but 3000 to oppose him. The armies clashed; but in spite of their valor *the patriots were completely defeated*, losing their guns and 1000 men either killed in the battle or shot after the same (June, 15th). Boves marched towards Valencia and having joined forces with Cajigal forced the city to surrender. Two days previous other Spanish divisions had occupied Caracas. In neither city did wild Boves accept petitions for pardon, but ravished mercilessly against the patriotic citizens. While R. Urdaneta, a patriotic captain, led 1000 men into New Granada, the liberator continued to retreat towards the east and was followed by Morales, a new royalist leader, with about 8000 men. When in Aragua it came to a clash, the patriots were again sadly defeated and dispersed, and horrible was the butchery of the prisoners and of the unarmed people that followed the patriotic army. It is estimated that 4700 persons were killed on that dismal 18th day of August, 1814.

All seemed to be lost again. Bolivar went to Cartagena in New Granada, where the patriots fought one another at the

time. As he did not want to see the sad aspects of such a war, he went to Jamaica. The rest of the patriotic army of Venezuela maintained the war somewhat longer in the eastern section and on one occasion even defeated the troops of *Morales*. In another encounter, however, Boves scattered them; but happily this cruel chief was killed by a patriot lance in that action. Ferdinand VII. of Spain united, in Cadiz, a forceful army of 10,600 able bodied soldiers at this time to subdue the revolting colonies and *Paul Morillo* who had attained the distinction of a general in the war with the French, was placed in command of this powerful expedition, with ample powers. Morillo landed at Cumana where Morales was in camp with 5000 men. And now injustice continues and barbaric rule takes a wider sway. Morillo, having entered Caracas, approved of the cruelties that had been committed against the patriotic citizens. When in the harbor the ship San Pedro was accidentally set on fire Morillo declared that the military treasury had been lost with the vessel and demanded a forced loan of 200,000 pesos from the inhabitants of Caracas. Besides this he organized a junta for the purpose of seizing and selling the properties of the patriots and created a permanent war council before which the people had to clear themselves of suspicion. Thus Morillo pacified Venezuela and then he left for Santa Marta to pacify New Granada, too, (July, 1815).

REVOLUTION OF NEW GRANADA AND QUITO.

1810 to 1816.

When the news of the French invasion of Spain and the captivity of Ferdinand VII. reached New Granada, Viceroy Anton Amar who was a stupid man and without prestige organized a junta in Bogata, the capital, which should express its sympathy with the provisional government of Spain and should raise funds for its assistance. Many were dissatisfied with this measure, principally the liberals of Quito who belonged to the viceroyship of New Granada at the time. In that city the Spanish general *M. Urries* an old, weak, and stupid man, managed affairs and began to take steps against his opponents, imprisoning them and thereby provoking the revolution. Captain J. Salinas with a few companions one night apprehended President Urriez and kept him in confinement. The revolutionists then organized *a governing junta* as whose chairman J. Montufur was elected. The junta had scarcely been organized when it was threatened by troops whom Viceroy Amar was sending from Bogata and Viceroy Abascal from Peru. Some patriotic troops, sent to oppose the force coming from the north, were defeated. This disaster put a stop to the revolution of Quito. The junta having secured the promise of a complete pardon, returned the government to Urriez and then liberated him. However, when the force of 800 men had arrived from Peru, Urriez changed his mind, not feeling himself bound by a promise, and arrested some 60 patriots. After seven months of promises to set them free and breaking those promises, he had on August 2nd, 1810, barbarously assassinated 28 of them. The Peruvian troops on that day committed all kinds of atrocities in Quito, killing more than 80 persons on the streets, sacking houses, and robbing about 300,000 pesos.

In the mean time the revolutionary movement had spread

throughout New Granada. In Cartagena and various provinces the Spanish authorities had been deposed and throughout the country *juntas of home government* were demanded. The people carried this movement so far that Viceroy Amar was obliged to call an open council to Bogata. This council deliberated all night and at three o'clock in the morning agreed on the resolution that the religion and the rights of captive Ferdinand VII. must be respected. Although for the present the viceroy still maintained the functions of president of the council, yet a few days later he was deposed and sent to Spain with three members of the royal audiencia, and a governing junta composed of patriots was established in Bogata. Cartagena, Santa Marta, and Quito imitated the capital, also installing particular government juntas.

The revolutionists of New Granada, however, made *one great mistake*. Instead of uniting their forces against the common enemy they lost much precious time in discussions, not being of the same mind in regard to the organization they should give the country. Some were of the opinion of organizing the various provinces into one confederation and placing it under one central government, while others wanted each province to have its own independent government. And not only did the Granadians uphold these diversified opinions; they unfortunately took steps of hostility, one province or section of the country against the other. Thus a lamentable war broke out in which brothers fought against brothers and which lasted until 1815. As Bolivar did not want to engage in this war on account of its sad aspects, but went to Jamaica, so we shall abstain from relating it.

We have learned how *Morillo pacified Venezuela* and that he then went to New Granada to pacify it, too. He arrived at Cartagena with an army of 10,000 veteran soldiers in 1815. Cartagena had at that time the reputation of being the best fortified port in South America. The patriots defended the port with 3600 men and 60 guns, resisting heroically for three

and a half months and gaining for Cartagena the fame of being *a heroic city*. This was the horrible struggle in which the silver sepulchre and the silver palm were converted into money for which rations were purchased for the starving defenders. Blockaded by land and by sea the besieged experienced the ravages of diseases and hunger. They ate the meat of horses, dogs, cats, and even rats before they surrendered. In the beginning of December the number of deaths was 300 throughout the city per day; but the defenders continued to resist with desperate valor until the number had been reduced to 2000 sick and starving heroes. Then they abandoned the place one night, embarking for Haiti; the most of them are said to have died on the trip. The occupation of Cartagena by the Spaniards was followed by horrifying atrocities. For example cruel Morales had published a pardon to all who would put themselves under his protection. 400 men, women, and children trusted in his assurances of safety, gathered at the place designated on the sea-shore, and were there murdered in cold blood. Ferdinand VII. awarded Morillo for this success with the title Count of Cartagena. This stronghold having fallen and the central provinces being overrun by Marillo's soldiers, it was useless for the patriots to make new endeavors. The royal generals Calzada and Latorre occupied Bogata May 5th, 1816, and Morillo, the pacifier, followed soon afterwards. In a short time the jails were filled with patriots. As in Caracas, he organized here a junta of confiscation and a permanent war council, or tribunal of purification, before which persons who were suspected of being patriotic had to clear themselves of such suspicion; otherwise a jail opened and confiscation followed. Morillo also made use of religious despotism to reach his end; for he appointed inquisition judges who declared books that were neither Latin nor Spanish, heretical. He extended his system of purification by terror into the provinces. Morillo boasted of the success he had achieved; namely, that he had in but a few months shot 125 of the most not-

able citizens. Among these figured the enlightened mathematician, astronomer, and naturalist, F. J. Caldas, of Bogata, who was shot because he had served the revolutionists as engineer.

After such deeds of barbarism Morillo returned to Venezuela where the patriotic guerillas disquieted the royalists. He left Bogata in the hands of Brigadier Samano who continued the regime of terror. Among this leader's victims figured the young heroine Palicarpa Salvatierra who and seven companions were shot through the back, because they had maintained communications with some patriots and had favored their endeavors.

Thus we see Venezuela and New Granada in 1816, after six years of tenacious fighting, again under Spanish control and Liberator Bolivar on his sojourns in Jamaica. We will leave the revolutionary movements of the northern section of the continent for the present, keeping in mind the actual sad situation, and learn next what the patriots of the southern countries had accomplished in the same time. Finally we shall see the patriots victorious in the north and in the south.

REVOLUTION OF CHILE.

1808 to 1817.

Directing our attention now to Chile's revolutionary period we shall find that that country made the experience of Venezuela and New Granada; namely, after a successful war of six years the Spaniards reconquered the country, and independent existence was assured only after a second ardent campaign.

A. G. Carrasco, a weak and stupid soldier, governed Chile in 1808 when the mail from Buenos Aires brought the first news of the French invasion of Spain. All the talk and conversation then was to defend the kingdom and to preserve it for the captive king Ferdinand VII. The Spanish party which was headed by the governor, the royal audiencia, the high officials, and the clergy, demanded blind obedience to the governmental juntas of the homeland. The municipal board, or cabildo, of Santiago, the capital, however, directed *the creole party* and became the soul of the situation. Claiming the authority of a national assembly, the aldermen decreed taxes and distributions and prescribed measures to acquire war materials, and they demanded that a national junta be created in Chile to govern the country. The most distinguished Chilean families supported this idea. They were in majority and had great influence through their fortunes and extensive estates; e. g. the family Lorrain was so numerous that the Lorrains were called the eight hundred. The two parties irritated one another, until they were in open conflict. The Spaniards called their opponents rebels and insurgents, while the creoles called themselves patriots and the others Goths and Saracens.

In the clubhouse of old conspirator J. A. Rojas many principal creoles met and it was rumored that they deliberated revolting plans. One night Governor Garrasco sent some soldiers to seize Rojas, J. O. Ovalle, and Dr. B. Vera (May 25th,

1808). Such a violent act precipitated the revolution. The people of Santiago demanded the liberty of the distinguished prisoners with much persistency. The agitation became threatening when it was learned that the prisoners had been taken to Valparaiso to be sent to Lima. When then the cabildo assembled and a threatening crowd gathered on the plaza, the governor was frightened and sent the order to Valparaiso to return the prisoners to Santiago. But Rojas and Ovalle had already been embarked and had left; only Dr. Vera had been retained on account of sickness. The agitation increased with the rumor that the patriots of Buenos Aires had already established a national governing junta, and patriotic armed horsemen galloped through the streets of Santiago by night. The members of the audiencia, fearing greater disturbances, advised Carrasco to quit his position. The governor accepted the advice and, having resigned in an open assembly of nobles, *Brigadier-general M. Toro*, a Chileno, was elected in his stead. Sr. Toro, being a man of eighty years and debilitated by age, became the person whom both Spaniards and creoles strove to gain. The old man not knowing what to do, conceded to the royalists the recognition of the regency of Cadiz and then listened to the creoles and granted them the call of an open assembly to provide for the security and peace of the country. That assembly was called and when it met it was attended by the cabildo and audiencia, by high civil officers and military men, by superiors of religious orders, and 400 private persons. The great majority consisted of patriots who knew already what they wanted. Toro resigned and the assembly resolved unanimously to appoint a junta which should govern the country during the captivity of the king. A national congress of representatives should be called and the seven members and two secretaries were chosen who should constitute the junta. This was done on the 18th day of September, 1810, which became the national day of Chilean independence.

Only one man seemed to be fit to direct the revolution.

It was *J. M. Rozas* of Concepcion who had in his native town exerted a great influence and had given impulse to the revolutionary movement. Rozas having been elected chairman of the first junta, his arrival at Santiago was celebrated with much rejoicing. Energetic and sagacious, educated and enlightened, Dr. Rozas surrounded himself with the most pronounced patriots and soon controlled them all. Under his direction the first junta organized bodies of troops and amassed arms. At the same time they decreed to open the ports of Coquimbo, Valparaiso, Talcahuano, and Valdivia to the commerce of all nations. This progressive measure lifted commerce out of colonial sluggishness, brought foreign trade to Chile's coast, and increased the tariff four times its former amount.

The Spanish party conspired. Colonel T. Figueroa mutinied in the plaza with a part of the troops on April 1st, 1811, the day fixed for election of new representatives. A great concourse of people gathered, excitement ran high; however, two or three volleys of the faithful troops dispersed the mutineers who left 14 dead and some wounded on the plaza. Figueroa fled and hid in a convent whither Dr. Rozas himself pulled him out. He was sentenced and shot some hours later. This mutiny had caused the first blood to flow in the revolution and opened an abyss between Spaniards and patriots; for evidences proved that the audiencia had instigated the mutiny. Rozas had it readily dissolved and in its place a tribunal of patriots was created from whose judgments no appeal could be made, even not in Spain.

Among the patriots two directions of political sentiments came up—the ones wanted to change the old institutions at once and thoroughly, while the others wanted to go more slowly and retain much of the existing. The first, or *radicals*, were led by Rozas, the latter, or *conservatives*, dominated in the junta and later in congress also. The conservative faction drew up a code according to which the country should be governed, and appointed three of their partisans to constitute an

executive body. Thereby Rozas was voted out and he went to Concepcion to arouse the south against these actions. However, opposition arose against them also from an unexpected quarter; for the stroke of the conservative majority was followed by a military stroke of the radicals, directed in Santiago by *J. M. Carrera*. This officer was 27 years old and had lately come from Spain where he had fought against the French as a major of hussars. Two of his brothers also held positions in Chile's partiotic army. In accord with them he excited a part of the garrison to revolt, dissolved the junta of conservative majority, and expelled seven of the twelve deputies of Santiago from congress; the vacant seats he filled with radicals. All was done without shedding of blood September 4th, 1811. The following day Rozas brought a similar movement into effect in Concepcion, established there another governing junta, and a little later Valdivia followed the examples of Santiago and Concepcion.

Having now a majority in Congress Rozas and the radicals pursued their reformatory work. One law suppressed some privileges of the parochials in favor of the poor; another prohibited the infamous traffic of slaves in Chile and declared all their children free who might be born in future. But the radicals forgot that they owed their triumph to *J. M. Carrera*. As he entertained personal aims, he conspired now against the radicals, as he, the first time, had conspired against the conservatives. Simultaneously he deceived the Goths by making them believe that he would restore the colonial regime and thus obtained funds from them. A military mutiny, as successful as the first, delivered the government into Carrera's hands. He replaced the governing junta by another which was composed of himself, G. Martin, and Dr. Rozas; the latter being absent B. O'Higgins was given his place. Dr. Rozas in Concepcion refused to accept the position with which Carrera attempted to quiet him down, and when his friends in congress initiated a hostile attitude towards, and even conspired

against, Carrera, the latter dissolved congress by force (December 2nd, 1811). This act of Carrera was disapproved by his colleagues Martin and O'Higgins who, therefore, renounced their positions. Now then Carrera was dictator in Santiago and Rozas dominated in Concepcion. As such a condition could not continue civil war threatened and troops were brought in readiness to march. Already the opposing armies went into camps which were separated only by the river Maule. Naturally the Goths took advantage of the situation and got ready for reaction. In Valdivia they overthrew the revolutionary junta. In view of the common danger that threatened the patriots and the young republic, the two leaders at the river Maule arrived at an understanding according to which a new congress should solve their disputes, whereupon Rozas returned to Concepcion and Carrera to Santiago. Chile was now divided.—Valdivia and the far south obeyed the Spanish viceroy of Peru; in Concepcion a patriotic junta governed, headed by Dr. Rozas; in Santiago another, but a different one, was controlled by Carrera. In this situation Carrera made the endeavor to undermine the power of Rozas. Instead of sending him money to pay the troops of the Araucanian frontier, he dispatched secret emissaries to the south who should initiate a mutiny in Concepcion. The mutiny was successful; Rozas and the other members of the junta of Concepcion were apprehended and replaced by men who were submissive to the Santiago junta or to Carrera (July 8th, 1812). Dr. Rozas was brought to the capital as a prisoner and exiled by Carrera to Mendoza, east of the Andes. There he died a few months later, sad and forgotten, he who had been the audacious revolutionist and the first promoter of Chile's independence.

After the fall of Rozas, Carrera became all-powerful; his will dominated in the governmental junta. And through his brothers who held prominent military positions, he controlled the army also. However, J. M. Carrera used his power to continue radical reforms and to arm the revolution. In

Santiago he established the first press which he had ordered from the United States, and he opened schools in all the convents. He recruited new troops, drilled them, and procured arms and ammunition. Two convents were converted into garrisons under scandalous protests of the devout. Carrera sanctioned a constitution, or fundamental law, by which a legislative and advising senate of seven members was created, that declared any measure which emanated from authority not residing in Chile, invalid, and that recognized civil equality, liberty of the press, the privilege of leaving or entering the country at random, protection of strangers, and other reformatory principles.

DANGERS FROM PERU.

The revolution had not yet kindled in Peru. The Peruvian viceroy had powerful resources of money, arms, soldiers, and ships at his disposal. He had already sent troops against the revolutionists of Quito and against the patriots of Argentina who were invading Upper Peru. The Chilean patriots naturally looked with anxiety towards the north and in reality Viceroy J. F. Abascal planned the submission of Chile. He intrusted the task to Brigadier-general A. Pareja, who embarked with a number of officers and with weapons in Peru and came to organize an army in the southern provinces of Valdivia and Chiloe which still were faithful to Spain. With 2100 men Pareja soon landed at Talcahuano which is the port of Concepcion, and having occupied both places March, 1813, he marched north towards the capital. The rapid advance of Pareja produced unusual alarm in Santiago where J. M. Carrera, head of the government, manifested energetic determination to defend the republican system. To intimidate the home enemies who felt sure of the downfall of the republic, Carrera resolved to imprison many, imposed contributions, and erected gallows in the midst of the plaza. Then he went to establish his headquarters in Talca, 150 miles south of the cap-

ital. Carrera and his two brothers commanded the patriotic army, which consisted of about 12,000 men who, however, were not well disciplined and were poorly armed. The larger number consisted of militiamen, men from the country who had even no idea of what a campaign might be. When the Spanish army one night encamped in Yeras Buenas, between Linares and Talca, Carrera at daybreak dispatched a column of 500 men to attack them. The enemy was surprised, disorganized, and Pareja retreated (April 27th). In his retreat towards Chillan where he expected to escape the hardships of the approaching winter, Carrera followed and overtook him at the town of San Carlos where a battle was fought that however remained indecisive. The royalists nevertheless fell back and closed themselves up in Chillan. Pareja grew sick and died soon after, leaving Captain J. M. Sanchez in command. Neglecting the attack of Chillan, Carrera marched to regain the cities of the south. Concepcion and Talcahuano fell into his hands and B. O'Higgins recaptured the towns on the Araucanian frontier. In the meantime the royalists in Chillan were accumulating provisions and entrenched themselves, resolved to resist attacks until re-enforcements might arrive from Peru; the Franciscan missionaries were their best supporters. At last Carrera, having returned with his army to Chillan, attacked the town and poured shot and shell into it for thirteen days. The patriots fought heroically, but in vain. They were in need of food and ammunition, of tents and shelter against the incessant rains and the cold of a rigorous winter, in consequence of which many soldiers fell sick and large numbers deserted. When Carrera at last had to raise the siege and retired towards Concepcion, the guerillas of Sanchez sallied forth in various directions. At the banks of the river Itata, at a place called Roble, they surprised Carrera's army; but courageous O'Higgins rearranged the disbanded troops and won a signal victory (October 17th). The governing junta of Santiago was occupied with the affairs of the war and to be

nearer its seat resolved to move to Talca, contemplating then already a change in the command of the army. Carrera's vacillating actions had aroused the sentiments of the people against him, while O'Higgins grew in their favor. Carrera accepted the change willingly and with his brother Louis started for Santiago. On the way both were surprised by royalists and taken to Chillan as prisoners.



BERNHARD O'HIGGINS

Chile's first President
† 1842

He was thirty-six years of age, when he became commander of the patriotic army in 1814. He was born in Chillan and was son of the illustrious Don Ambrose O'Higgins who had been governor of Chile and viceroy of Peru. Educated in England, Don Bernhard had visited Spain and returned to Chile to establish himself on the rich estate near Los Angeles which his father had left him. When revolutionary movements were set on foot he had joined Dr. Rozas of Concepcion, had filled positions in congress and the junta, and after Rozas' fall he had again returned to his hacienda. Pareja's invasion had brought him into the revolutionary ranks the second time and after the battle of Roble Carrera himself had called him the first soldier of Chile. Bernhard O'Higgins became one of the

four great heroes of the South American revolution and the father of his country.

Brigadier-general G. Gainza came from Peru with 800 soldiers to take the command of the royalist troops. In the south he tried to impede the union of the patriotic army which operated in two divisions, commanded by O'Higgins and J. Makenna respectively. Gainza attacked O'Higgins' division and was repulsed, next day he attacked the other patriotic division and was again defeated. However, a royalist leader had meanwhile with a guerilla band taken Talca and when M. Blanco Encalada came from Santiago with 1000 men to recapture that city he was defeated by that leader at Cancha Rayada, leaving the way open to the ungarrisoned capital. Then Gainza united all the Spanish forces in Chillan and, having reorganized them, marched with this army rapidly against Santiago. However, O'Higgins advanced also in forced marches to protect the capital. The two armies crossed the river Maule almost at the same time—Gainza on rafts and protected by the royalists of Talca, and O'Higgins by night at a ford with the water up to the breasts of the horses and spied by enemies. His was a heroic feat. Having crossed the Maule, O'Higgins' army gained the advantage and entrenched itself in Quechereguas. Gainza tried to press on in spite of the patriots, but he was twice defeated, April 7th and 8th, 1814. Decimated by the marches and defeats, the retreat cut off by the Maule, and shut up in Talca, the Spanish army was doomed. A dismal suspension of arms only came to save it.

In those days the English commodore, Hillyar, arrived in Chile, having been authorized by the viceroy of Peru to mediate between the Chilean royalists and patriots. True, there were peculiar aspects of the continental revolution at this time. On the one hand the Spaniards were successful in all the various countries — in Upper Peru they had defeated the Argentinos, whereby the Peruvian viceroy was enabled to send more

troops to Chile, and, according to the latest news from Spain, the victories of Wellington drove the French out of that country and prepared the return of Ferdinand VII. who would, as was evident, send large armies to reconquer his colonies. On the other hand the first enthusiasm for the war in Chile had subsided, the free gifts of the patriots ceased, and forced contributions consequently increased. Then there were many families who had losses to lament and dead to bewail. Lastra who had in the meantime become supreme director in Santiago, took these conditions and circumstances into consideration when Commodore Hillyar presented his propositions and he came to a wrong conclusion. O'Higgins received the order to treat with Gainza who had not wished anything more ardently; for thus only he could escape the imminent ruin in Talca. According to the agreement that was signed in Lircay the patriots should recognize Ferdinand VII. and the provisional authority of the regency and courts of Cadiz; while the royalists on their part should recognize the existing government of Chile, promised to vacate the territory within two months. On the one side and the other the prisoners of war should be given their liberty. Though neither of the parties thought earnestly of complying with these stipulations, the funest treaty made the revolution recede, saved the Spanish army, and initiated civil war between the patriots. J. M. Carrera and his brother Louis who had been captured by the royalists on their way to the capital, had made their escape from Chillan, had reached Santiago, and now put themselves at the head of the discontented. The number of the latter increased when after the two months agreed upon in the treaty the royalists still remained in Chillan and did not leave the country. J. M. Carrera revolted, as at other times, with the garrison of the capital, deposed Director Lastra and created an executive junta whose head he himself was. O'Higgins marched with his army from Talca to restore the legal government, and Carrera went to meet him with a force. They confronted one an-

other to engage in battle when again an unexpected occurrence brought a change and this time led to the reconciliation of the leaders. Viceroy Abascal of Peru had not accepted the treaty of Lircay and had sent *M. Osorio* to subdue the Chilean revolutionists unconditionally. The new Spanish commander had disembarked at Talcahuano with a considerable number of soldiers, a supply of war material, and a good sum of money and was marching north. He had sent an officer to the patriots to demand surrender, who arrived when these thought of fighting one another. Carrera and O'Higgins rejected the viceroy's intimation and in view of the common danger they threw aside their animosity and became friends. They united their troops and in their midst walked arm in arm, showing their friendship. O'Higgins ceded the chief command to his rival, denying himself.

Osorio advanced with 5000 soldiers well equipped and disciplined. The patriotic leaders could oppose with but 4000 men, very inferior in equipment and discipline and still discontented with the recent sad experiences. O'Higgins with one of Carrera's brothers and half the patriotic army were to close themselves up in Rancagua, while J. M. Carrera was to take a position farther north with the vanguard. The first raised adobe barricades in the four streets of Rancagua that lead to the plaza and resolutely expected the royalists who arrived soon and attacked courageously. During an entire day the patriots resisted like heroes. Next day the royalists cut the water off and set the houses on fire to open passages, renewing their attacks furiously. The patriots, suffocated by smoke and heat and dying from thirst, waited for help from the commander in chief. And really they saw Carrera coming in the distance with his division, but soon turning again, without having attempted an attack which he doubtless thought would be ruinous. O'Higgins then lost all hope. Of his 2000 heroes only 309 were left; but instead of surrendering, O'Higgins mounted a horse and with sword in hand between corpses

and ruins he opened himself a passage, followed by a remnant of braves October 2nd, 1814; and they got through. *The disaster of Rancagua* was the ruin of the first revolution. In the midst of a frightful disorder the patriots of Santiago thought of nothing but escape. Some went to hide in their country estates; those who could fled towards Mendoza on the eastern or Argentine slope of the Andes, scaling the mountain passages that were still covered with the winter's snow. More than 2000 persons emigrated in this way, Carrera and O'Higgins following among the last. Santiago and all Chile fell into the hands of the revengeful Spaniards. Thus the first period of the revolution terminated in defeat; it was later remembered by the name "The old fatherland."

SPANISH REOCCUPATION, 1814 TO 1817.

Osorio, the victor, was not a bad and cruel man; but following the instructions of Viceroy Abascal he did acts of violence and perfidy. Acting as though the past was forgotten he induced many patriots, the heads of families respectable for their age and conditions, to leave their estates and confidently return to Santiago. Many returned. One night Osorio seized them and sent them as prisoners to the dreary island of Juan Fernandez, the former abode of Robinson Crusoe, where for more than two years they suffered great hardships. The Spanish chief established a tribunal of purification in Santiago, before which the suspects had to purify their conduct by proving that they had always been faithful to Spain. The patriots had to suffer confiscations and increased taxations, and had to submit to forced loans. The insolent soldiers of the troop called Talavera, Osorio's favorite body, and principally San Bruno, their captain, made themselves fearful through their cruelties. Instigated by Bruno the guards of the jail terrified the people by killing some unfortunate patriots in their cells, with swords. The Spaniards tore down all that the revolutionists had built up. They re-established the royal audiencia,

reorganized the cabildo, suppressed all good institutions, even such as, the public library and the national institute.

When Ferdinand VII. had returned to the throne of Spain he sent *Marco del Pont* as governor to Chile. This was a young field marshal who was dull, conceited, effeminate. Fearful of the preparations which the patriots made in Mendoza, Marco del Pont dictated terrible proclamations to assure tranquility in the interior. He established a new tribunal of public vigilance and security, putting it in charge of horrible San Bruno, and disregarded the pardon which the king had sent for those exiled in Juan Fernandez. And lastly Del Pont's arbitrary and violent acts were of such a nature and so many that all the people turned their eyes hopefully towards Mendoza. From beyond the Andes redemption should come.

REVOLUTION AND INDEPENDENCE OF THE
ARGENTINE PROVINCES.

1810 to 1816.

The junta of Sevilla, Spain, appointed *B. H. Cisneros* viceroy of the La Plata provinces in July, 1809. The revolution in that section of the continent had its beginning in the *presidency of Charcas*, or Upper Peru (Bolivia). President Pizarro of Chuquisaca believed to be able to calm the agitation that was caused by the news from Spain concerning the French invasion and the king's captivity, by ordering the imprisonment of several eminent men. However, on the same day the people of the town apprehended that president, confided the civil government to the regent of the audiencia and the military command to Colonel Arenales. This revolt was followed by a similar one in the city of La Paz; for the revolutionists of this city also deposed the Spanish authorities and organized a government junta and a military force for its defense. These revolutionists of Upper Peru, however, were attacked by enemies coming from the south and from the north. Viceroy Cisneros of Buenos Aires sent 1000 men against Chuquisaca under General Nieto, and Viceroy Abascal of Lima, Peru, sent 5000 men against La Paz under Goyeneche who was president of the audiencia of Cuzco. Though the La Paz revolutionists disagreed and the junta dissolved, P. Murillo who was a native of that city and daring, offered battle to the Peruvian troops, which, however, was easily won by Goyeneche. This general stained his victory by cruelties which he enacted in the city; for in five months he condemned 85 persons to the gallows or the cudgel, to jail or exile, and their goods were confiscated. General Nieto coming with an Argentine army, occupied Chuquisaca without resistance.

The news of the dissolution of the junta of Sevilla by the French reached Buenos Aires in May, 1810. The Argentine

patriots believed that the Spanish government had ceased to be with this dissolution and consequently purposed to organize a national government, similar to those created in Chuquisaca, Quito, and Caracas. The people of Buenos Aires, therefore, being aroused by the patriots, knocked on the door of the government chambers, asking for the appointment of a junta of home government. Viceroy Cisneros agreed to quit his charge and the other Spaniards had also to yield to public demand. *A governing junta was appointed which was composed of seven patriots whose president was Commander Saavedra.* The junta was scarcely installed when it began to make preparations for war; for neither the provinces of the north, nor Paraguay, nor the Banda Oriental, or Uruguay, were disposed to recognize the new authority of Buenos Aires. Also the intendente of Cordoba, J. Concha, denied obedience. The junta dispatched 1200 soldiers under Brigadier-general Balcarce to Cordoba to treat the opposition leaders summarily. These, having been arrested, were shot, among whom was Liniers, a former hero and the predecessor of Viceroy Cisneros. The patriotic army then proceeded from Cordoba to Upper Peru, a distance of 450 miles, where the Peruvian General Goyeneche committed never heard vexations to exact money from the people. Balcarce, at first repulsed, gained a splendid victory November, 1810. General Neito who managed the affairs of Charcas at the time and a few other Spanish dignitaries were made prisoners and shot. The triumph of the patriotic cause seemed to be assured in this region.

While Balcarce's division operated in the north, another troop of 800 patriots entered Paraguay, commanded by *Manuel Belgrano*. After a strenuous march through forests and marshes Belgrano met the army of the Paraguayan governor Velasco, who had united 7000 men. Repulsed in a first encounter, the Argentine commander had to fall back to the river Parana and a month and a half later he was forced to withdraw from Paraguayan territory. The third opposition to the

new Argentine government came from Montevideo where *Elio* who had been nominated viceroy by the regency of Cadiz, had declared war against the junta of Buenos Aires. The patriots of the Banda Oriental had risen against Elio, and Belgrano was sent to aid them. He, having increased his troop to more than 1000 men, routed the royalists at San José and obliged them to seek refuge in Montevideo (April, 1811). Two months later Elio was completely defeated before Montevideo, losing all this artillery and baggage; but he retained his capital and navy. With his vessels Elio blockaded Buenos Aires with great loss to commerce and he demanded the surrender of the city.

There having been many discordant opinions and disputes in the junta of Buenos Aires, the people ascribed the recent disorders and losses to the same and demanded a government exercised by *three persons* who might work in better harmony and with greater activity. The executive of three having been appointed, the triumvirate, in order to overcome existing difficulties, agreed to recognize Paraguay as an independent state and also to relinquish control of the Banda Oriental, or Uruguay, promising to withdraw their troops from that country, while Elio promised to raise the blockade of Buenos Aires. These regulations permitted the triumvirate to pay closer attention to the administration of the interior. They framed a provisional constitution for the new republic, which recognized freedom of the press, opportune rights of individuals, and prohibited slave-trade (May, 1812). The radicals of Buenos Aires, however, executed a revolting movement in which they were supported by the garrison, by deposing the executive and by appointing *another triumvirate* which was composed of men belonging to their party. The radical triumvirate called a general constituent congress, to be elected by general suffrage. The congress which opened its sessions January 31st, 1813, declared new-born slaves free, abolished the inquisition, suppressed punishment by torment and the titles of nobility.

However, the revolutionary movements in Upper Peru and also in the Banda Oriental had begun anew and did not allow the military operations to cease. *General Belgrano* had organized an army of 1500 men and, marching north, had gone into camp near *Jujuy*. *Goyeneche* had taken the town of Co-chabamba which her patriots had heroically defended, where-upon he had perpetrated horrible revenges. Then he dispatched General Pio Tristan at the head of 3000 men towards the south to oppose Belgrano. Near Tucuman they clashed. Though number, arms, and discipline were in favor of the royalists, Belgrano won a splendid victory September 24th, 1812, the enemy losing 450 killed, 700 prisoners, and a large quantity of arms and equipment. Belgrano followed Tristan who entrenched himself in the town of Salta, attacked, and obliged him to capitulate February 20th, 1813. The Argentine general was altogether too generous with his perfidious enemies, permitting the conquered to retire to Peru under the oath of not again taking up arms against the patriotic governments which were within the territory of the former La Plata vice-royship. The archbishop of Chuquisaca and the bishop of La Paz declared perfidiously that God did not consider the agreements binding which were made with insurgents and absolved from their oaths those who had capitulated. Goyeneche grew tired of a war that seemed interminable and left the seat of war, carrying away a great fortune. Later he went to Spain where Ferdinand VII. honored him with the title Count of Huaqui. The viceroy of Peru appointed *Brigadier-general Pezuela* to prosecute the war in Upper Peru. He came with 4000 men and surprised Belgrano in Vilcapujio, north of Potosi, inflicting great losses on the patriots. A month and a half later Pezuela overtook Belgrano in Ayouma and defeated his army completely; only 1000 Argentinos could be united after this second disaster. — While these events occurred in the north, *Manuel Sarratea*, the president of the second triumvirate, attacked Montevideo, as this town was the

center of royalistic conspiracies. The commander there was Brigadier-general *Manuel Vigodet*, successor to Elio. *Colonel Rondeau*, commanding the patriotic vanguard, routed Vigodet about three miles from Montevideo, leaving him only this place and the vessels in the river (December 31st, 1812). Vigodet then ordered his squadron to navigate the Parana and to pillage the river towns. A party of 250 Spaniards disembarked in front of a convent; but Commander San Martin was there already with his regiment of mounted grenadiers and made the enemy reembark hurriedly, who left 50 dead, 14 prisoners, and 2 guns behind. — Colonel Rondeau besieged Montevideo, but could not take the city, as it was strongly fortified and as it had received a re-enforcement of 2000 men from Spain. — As cases of emergency exact more vigor in governments, the Argentine congress united all the executive power in but one of the triumvirates, in *J. A. Posadas*, with the title Supreme Director of State (January 26th, 1814). To capture Montevideo a navy was necessary. The director bought and equipped four mercantile vessels and appointed the distinguished *Irishman Wm. Brown* to command them. The Spaniards had 14 war vessels and 18 armed merchantmen which Vigodet divided into two sections; so Brown could attack them separately. At the conflux of the Parana and Uruguay, or where these rivers form the La Plata, there lies the island Martin Garcia which was fortified. Brown landed his men there, took the Spanish batteries, and forced the one section of the Spanish fleet to ascend the Uruguay, while the other section stayed at Montevideo. Brown thereupon went to blockade this port and supported the operations of the patriotic army of 5000 men which was besieging the city by land under Colonel Charles Alvear who had succeeded Rondeau in the command. While Brown captured three ships of the enemy, Alvear closed in upon Montevideo and forced the royalists to capitulate June 22nd, 1814. They surrendered the city with 300 guns, 8000 rifles, and the vessels that were still in the river. Thus the Spanish power

in the regions of the La Plata river was exterminated, never to revive there again.

San Martin, a great military genius and hero of the South American revolution, was born in the town of Yapeyn of the Argentine territory of the Missions in the year 1778. His



JOSE DE SAN MARTIN

The Able Strategist
† 1850

mother was a creole and his father a Spanish officer. When he was eight years of age, the father took the whole family to Spain where Joseph received his education and attended the best military schools also. At an early age he entered the Spanish army and served, as Carrera did, in the war against the French, gaining the medal of the victors of Bailen and rising to the rank of a lieutenant-colonel. As Bolívar had become a member of Miranda's secret society, so had San Martín, and both were pledged to the work of transforming Spain's South

American colonies into independent governments. Both Bolívar and San Martín imbibed their lives' ideals in Francisco de Miranda's society and both carried their instructor's ideas and ardent desires to a glorious issue, becoming the brightest stars in the wars of the South American independence. Though Miranda's career was short, his thoughts lived on through them. San Martín resigned his position in the Spanish army early and returned to his native country to aid her in her efforts to secure independence. When he landed at Buenos Aires in March, 1812, he at once joined the Argentine army, was confirmed in his rank as lieutenant-colonel, and began to organize the famous regiment of mounted grenadiers. He saw the importance of quality and thorough preparation and selected young men of the finest physical type and the best moral characters. These he drilled and trained and subjected to the severest discipline, steadily eliminating those who did not measure up to his high and rigid standard. Out of this severe system and out of this select corps came generals and other officers for the armies and battles that followed; for his famous regiment of mounted grenadiers produced 19 generals and more than 200 officers of lower rank. With his regiment San Martín routed the Spaniards at San Lorenzo on the bank of the Paraná. Soon after he was commissioned to replace noble Belgrano as commander of the Argentine army of Upper Peru which the Peruvian general had defeated in two big battles. He reorganized that army and also organized guerilla bands, but came to the conviction that the final object of independence would not be reached by fighting the Peruvian viceroy's armies in Upper Peru. He, therefore, renounced his position, pretending to be unwell, and asked the government for the poor and distant territory of Cuyo which lies under the shadows of the Andes. There in the town of Mendoza he laid his plans and labored at their realization; his plans and labors we shall relate in the war of Chile's independence. — San Martín was not such a violent and brilliant general, as Bolívar, his rival in

glory; his disposition was rather cold and serene. He was an organizer, a reserved, astute, circumspect character who did not undertake anything without having previously taken it into close consideration.

To recover the losses sustained by Belgrano in Upper Peru, the Buenos Aires government made great exertions to organize new bodies of troops and in San Martin's stead who had resigned Colonel Rondeau was appointed to the command of the army of Upper Peru. Rondeau followed Pezuela, the Spanish general, but the latter cut the Argentinos' retreat and inflicted a serious loss upon them in Sipi-Sipi November 28th, 1815. Fortunately the guerillas of Salta could impede the pursuit of the royalists. The patriotic guerillas of Upper Peru, whom San Martin had organized, were in future, indeed, able to hinder Peruvian troops from entering Argentine territory.

The directorship of Buenos Aires changed hands in rapid succession. To satisfy outside provinces which for some time had been jealous of the capital, and to improve public sentiments, it was thought wise to call a congress to a town outside of Buenos Aires. So the representatives met in Tucuman and elected the distinguished soldier *J. M. Pueyrredon* supreme director. At this stage of the Argentine revolutionary development prominent citizens saw the time come when the independence of their country should be declared. Manuel Belgrano in congress and San Martin in Mendoza demanded it persistently. Consequently the congress of Tucuman proclaimed, July 9th, 1816, the full and entire independence of the country under the name "United Provinces of South America." A republican form of government was established and was not overthrown by outside enemies, as was done in the three countries whose first revolutions we have already related.

REVOLUTION AND INDEPENDENCE OF URUGUAY.

1810 to 1828.

Uruguay, or Banda Oriental, was a province of the La Plata viceroyship, and its capital, Montevideo, was a gathering place of royalists under Elio and Vigodet since the revolutionary movements had begun in Buenos Aires in 1810. *José Artigas* was a descendant of the first settlers of that city and became the revolutionary leader of his native country. Though at first he united with the Argentine revolutionists against the Spaniards, yet he cherished the idea of absolute independence already early in the movement, i. e. he as also many of his country men wanted the Banda Oriental to be independent of Argentina as well as of Spain. Therefore Artigas left the Buenos Aires army and aroused the Oriental provinces to revolt. When the Argentinos had defeated the Spaniards and captured Montevideo, Artigas kept the peace for a while, but soon began a series of revolts again. He drove the Argentinos out of Montevideo, confided its management to bloody Ortuguez, and established his domination in the whole territory. Organizing guerillas Artigas routed the Argentine troops that were sent against him. He even crossed the river Uruguay and carried his incursions, pillages, and anarchy into the Argentine provinces of Entre Ríos and Corrientes, proclaiming a federation and at the same time committing unheard depredations and violent deeds.

Many people of Montevideo, exasperated by the cruelties and despotic rule of Artigas and Ortuguez, left the city and went to Rio de Janeiro where the Portuguese Court of Brazil resided to ask Don John, the regent, to deliver them from the despotism of Artigas. The regent made use of the occasion and sent an army of 10,000 Brazilians under *General C. F. Lecor* to establish order in the Banda Oriental. Artigas' guerillas were easily defeated in two engagements and Lecor

entered Montevideo victoriously. Artigas fled to Paraguay where Dr. Francia, the dictator of Asuncion, took care of him. He and his successor Lopez did their best for Artigas up to the end of his long life in 1850. His subaltern, F. Rivera, surrendered to the Brazilians and Lecor retained him in the command of an Oriental regiment. The Brazilian occupation being completed, John VI. declared the Banda Oriental incorporated into his monarchy under the name Province Cisplatina (1821). When in the following year the independence of Brazil, i. e. her separation from Portugal, was declared, Uruguay recognized the new Brazilian situation and sent deputies to the congress of Rio de Janeiro.

The Argentine government had watched the conquest of Uruguay by the Brazilians with displeasure, and though the foreign method of government was not cruel, not even severe, the majority of the Oriental people preferred to belong to the Argentine Republic, because they were united with the Argentinos by language, tradition, and common origin. — A number of Uruguayans had during the despotic rule of Artigas emigrated to Buenos Aires and now planned to liberate their country from Brazil. There were *Colonel J. A. Lavalleja*, M. Oribe and there were other Uruguayans, *33 in all*, who secretly left Buenos Aires and landed at the coast of the Banda Oriental April 19th, 1825. It was a great undertaking for this small number of men to liberate their fatherland in which there were 2000 Brazilian soldiers stationed at the time; but they were animated by the most ardent patriotism and under their flag solemnly swore to set the fatherland free or to die in the attempt. Next day a slight advantage favored their endeavor, for some volunteers increased their number. Commander Rivera also passed over to the revolters and before two months had passed, the Brazilians were shut up in the forts of Montevideo and the country. The insurgents organized a provisional government which recognized the authority of the Argentine congress and called a provincial assembly. This having met,

it proclaimed the separation from Brazil and the proclamation was soon sanctioned by the *victory of Sarandi* where the Brazilians lost 200 prisoners. The Argentine government which had secretly favored the Oriental insurgents, took, in harmony with those people, Uruguay under its protection and jurisdiction. This their act was equal to a declaration of *war against Brazil*, and the war broke out. Illustrious *B. Rivadavia* who had been elevated to the supreme command of the Argentine Republic, organized an army of 6000 men, which he placed under the command of *General Alvear*, and a navy which Admiral Brown was to command. The Argentinos fought the Brazilians successfully from the beginning on land and on sea and were victorious during the whole war which lasted several years. Emperor Pedro I. of Brazil re-enforced his army and replaced General Lecor by *Marshal Barbacena*; nevertheless the Brazilians were not more fortunate than before. Admiral Brown destroyed 19 Brazilian vessels in the Uruguay river, only three vessels escaping destruction. General Alvear defeated Marshal Barbacena at Ituzaingo February 20th, 1827.

Though the Argentinos were victors, they had in the two years' war almost exhausted their resources; and as the Brazilians were not more favorably situated, both parties desired peace. The negotiations having been initiated, the Brazilian government demanded the return of Uruguay to its imperial domains. The Argentine people whose supreme director now was Manuel Dorrego, did not consent to the demand and the war was renewed and carried on with the same results as before. However, through the intervention of England's diplomacy at last a treaty of peace and friendship was signed in Rio de Janeiro, which was, thirty-seven days later, ratified in Montevideo (October 4th, 1828). According to this treaty the Banda Oriental should neither belong to the Argentine Republic nor to Brazil, but should constitute an independent state. Thus the present republic of Uruguay was born.

INDEPENDENCE OF PARAGUAY.

1810 to 1814.

Paraguay was of all the Spanish colonies the last which really wanted liberty and self-government or the last which exerted herself to attain them, and this for two reasons — first, she being the oldest Spanish colony in the La Plata region, had for a century and a half been under the influence of the Jesuit missions, whereby the ignorant people had been stupefied; and second, she being a long distance from the sea, had not enjoyed the benefits of commerce and intercourse with other nations. In 1810 the intelligent and kind Spanish colonel *B. Velasco* governed the colony. As the Paraguayans were then a part of the La Plata viceroyship, they refused to recognize the revolutionary junta of Buenos Aires and organized an army of 7000 men for their defense. The Argentine general *M. Belgrano* was at the head of 800 soldiers repulsed in two encounters, forced to capitulate in Tacuari and to withdraw from the country.

Soon after, the talk in Asuncion, the capital of Paraguay, was about a change of government and about independence from Spain. In the last campaign Governor Velasco had lost much of his prestige and *F. Yegros* and other military leaders had gained it. One night a revolutionary complot was initiated in Asuncion in favor of uniting with Buenos Aires. In accord with the officers the conspirators occupied the quarters, deposed Velasco, and confided the government to a junta which was composed of *F. Yegros*, *J. Caballero*, and *Dr. G. R. Francia*; the latter became the dominant spirit.

Dr. Francia, a Paraguayan lawyer, who had studied in the Argentine university of Cordoba, was then 53 years old. His education was deficient, but he enjoyed a good reputation; for he was one of the few Paraguayans who had any idea of governmental affairs. Dr. Francia wished that Paraguay

neither obey the Spaniards nor the Argentinos and readily changed his country's relations. He, consequently, ordered to apprehend ex-Governor Velasco and other royalists and also the principal leaders who favored a union with Argentina. Thereupon he directed a note to the revolutionary junta of Buenos Aires, in which he declared that Paraguay would unite with the Argentine provinces only as a part of a confederation (1811). In Dr. Francia's government we find peculiarities that are odd and pedantic. From Roman history he knew that a government of two consuls had formerly existed in the old Roman republic and so he wished to establish a similar government in Paraguay. A congress of representatives which met in Asuncion and received its instructions from Francia, resolved that the republic be governed by two consuls who should be elected annually. Dr. Francia and Commander Yegros were the first consuls. Imitating Rome further, two curule chairs were constructed and the names of Ceasar and Pompey were engraved on them (1813); Dr. Francia occupied the first chair and Sr. Yegros the second. As there also had been dictators in Rome who had exercised absolute power, Dr. Francia proposed that the same become customary in Paraguay. He, consequently, had himself appointed by congress as the only and absolute ruler and accepted that title May, 1814.

Thus Paraguay liberated herself from Spanish domination and separated from Buenos Aires without war; but she remained isolated and was submitted for many years to the dreary, gloomy, and bloody despotism of Dr. Francia and of the two Lopez who succeeded him, not enjoying republican liberty.

INDEPENDENCE OF CHILE.

1817 to 1826.

We left Chile in the control of the Spaniards in 1817 and her people looking anxiously towards Mendoza. In this Argentine town, San Martin was then pondering over a great project. He thought as long as the viceroy of Peru could but renew the Spanish armies who in Upper Peru fought the Argentine patriots, the latter could not make their independence absolutely sure, the war would rather become interminable in that section. To bring it to a close it would be necessary to shut up the fountain of royalist resources by attacking the viceroy in his own house. And it was impracticable to do that by fighting one's way through Upper Peru, across the Andes to Lima. The better plan seemed to be to organize an army in Mendoza, to cross the Andes to the neighboring state of Chile, and to help the patriots of that country drive the Spaniards out. This was the first part of San Martin's project. Chile being free, San Martin thought he could count upon the Chilean patriots to re-enforce his army, to organize a squadron that might control the Pacific and carry his troops to the Peruvian ports. Then the viceroy would find himself in the necessity to recall his army from Upper Peru for his own defense, and his countrymen, the Argentinos, would be free from enemies in Upper Peru. After the viceroy's troops were defeated in Peru the independence of half the continent would be assured. This was the second part of the vast and bold project of San Martin. It had the appearance of madness; however, it was realized, section after section, almost without alterations.

THE CHILEAN EMIGRANTS IN MENDOZA.

San Martin had not been long in Mendoza when the Chilenos who had fled after the disaster of Rancagua, arrived

there. Near the city he had opened a camp and there he labored day and night at the organization of an army. The Chilean emigrants became a considerable re-enforcement, San Martin accepting them with pleasure and the majority entering his army. He showed O'Higgins especially warm sympathy, made him his subaltern, and the two labored together. But Carrera exhibited a haughty disposition, was proud even in misfortune, and not inclined to serve in a second capacity. San Martin obliged him to leave for Buenos Aires, where the three Carrera brothers and their adherents gathered. We shall see how they ended.

GUERILLAS IN CHILE.

Among the Chilean emigrants in Mendoza the young lawyer M. Rodriguez distinguished himself through his restless and enthusiastic disposition. In accord with San Martin, Rodriguez returned to Chile secretly and organized mountainers for guerilla purposes, who overran the country between Santiago and the river Maule. Followed by a number of countrymen he seemed to be everywhere, appearing as quickly in one place as in another. The Spanish governor Marco del Pont put a price on his head, and pursuers set out to catch him. Rodriguez boldly defied his enemies; disguised at times he would be in their very midst. One day he entered Melipilla, divided the provisions of the repository among his followers, and left. He invested with his guerillas the whole country between Santiago and Talca. — Marco stationed numerous troops in various places to watch the mountain passes whereby his army was scattered over a very long frontage. This he did because there was great doubt about the pass through which San Martin's army would come to invade Chile; and this doubt was fostered by San Martin himself. The shrewd Argentine general, by his complex spy system, had made the enemy believe that the invasion would come from the southern passes; his real intentions he had kept from friends and ene-

mies alike. For instance on the eastern slopes of the Andes, commanding the southern passes, lived the treacherous Pehu-enche Indians. San Martin asked them for the permission to lead an army through their country which they granted, and he was satisfied that the Indians, with their usual perfidy, would inform Marco of this project. He also took care that their information was confirmed by Marco's agents in Mendoza who sent him dispatches to the same purport. Marco, harassed by the alarming news, adopted most ill-conceived measures by cutting trenches in the southern passes, strengthening the guards of all the passes and scattering his troops all along the mountain slopes, over a distance of about 1300 miles. To accomplish this he raised arbitrary contributions, increasing the discontent of the people so that all classes longed for the appearance of San Martin and got ready to help him as best they might be able.

In *the encampment of Mendoza* all hands worked for the same purpose, all details were directed by the same mind, by the far-seeing intelligence of San Martin. The forges blazed day and night; the arsenals turned out cartridges by the hundred thousands. Fray Beltram made special carriages for the artillery, adapted to the mountain passes; the guns themselves were to be carried on the backs of mules. Slings were made to carry them over dangerous places and sleds of raw hide in which they might be hauled up by men where the gradients were too steep for the mules. Large provisions of food, called charquican, were prepared. The soldiers made for themselves sandals of raw hides, called tamangos. Thirty thousand horse-shoes were manufactured, which were a great innovation, as the Argentinos were not accustomed to shoe their horses; without them the hoofs of the cavalry horses would have been worn down in the transit over the stony passes. Four cables, each 170 feet long, and two anchors formed a portable bridge.

PASSAGE OF THE ANDES BY SAN MARTIN'S
LIBERATING ARMY.

JANUARY 24TH TO FEBRUARY 8TH, 1817.

"What spoils my sleep is not the strength of the enemy, but how to pass those immense mountains," said San Martin, as from Mendoza he gazed upon the snow-clad summits of the Andes, which as a mighty barrier separate the wide plains of the Argentine pampas from Chile's smiling valleys. This great Cordillera is in its center composed of three or four ranges of conical and sharply defined peaks which are crowned with perpetual snow. This section of the Andes is doubtless the most rugged and steep; for here the mighty Aconcagua, the mountain king of South America, rises to a height of 23,080 feet above the Pacific and other peaks to a height of 21,000 feet. At their feet lie deep valleys from which perpendicular precipices rise up to the clouds. The mighty condors wheeling in the airy circles, are at those dizzy heights the only living beings to be seen. There are also lakes fed by torrents of melted snow which, pouring down the mountain sides into these valleys, find at times no exit, their paths being closed by immense heaps of debris hurled from the lofty summits by force of ice and water. These immense groups of mountains are traversed by rugged defiles. Narrow paths, the result of volcanic action, wind along the edges of precipices, while below roar the mountain streams carrying great rocks in their course. Here nature covers herself with no other ornaments than the cactus, mosses, and thorny plants; everywhere are seen traces of the world in embryo, as it emerged from chaos in the process of creation.

The great Cordillera can only be crossed by certain passes. Those which have connection with our history are two in the center, in front of Mendoza and San Juan; two in the north, leading from Argentina to Coquimbo and Copiapo; and two in the south, giving access to the valleys of Talca, to the plain

of Maipo, and to the capital of Chile. These passes, from 9000 to 12,000 feet above sea level, are covered with snow in the larger part of the year and are passable only in the height of summer. Until San Martin's liberating army crossed, they had been traversed only by small detachments of soldiery or by troops of mules; the paths being in many places so narrow as only to give room for one mounted man at a time. The passage of a numerous army with guns and baggage was held to be impossible and had never been thought of until the feat was accomplished by San Martin. Food for men and forage for horses, mules, and oxen had to be carried with them. And it was necessary to reach the Chilean side in force sufficient to overcome a watchful enemy; to concentrate the different columns upon the enemy's weak point; and to make all the preparations in secret, so that the army might rush like a thunderbolt from the western mountain slopes and give battle on the open plain.

Everything was ready in Mendoza. The army consisted of 3000 infantry in four battalions, led by Alvarado, Cramer, Conde, and Las Heras; of 5 squadrons of the mounted grenadiers, 700 sabers, led by Zapiola, Melian, Ramallo, Escalada, and Necochea; and of 250 artillery, with ten 6-pounders, two howitzers, and nine 4-pounder mountain-guns, under command of La Plaza. 1200 mounted negro militia from Cuyo, besides muleteers and artisans accompanied the army. The army was arranged in three divisions, each entirely independent of the others. The vanguard under Soler and the reserve under O'Higgins marched by one of the center passes. Las Heras with the artillery marched by another center pass, which was the only one practicable for guns and ammunition. All the food for fifteen days they took with them, also 600 bullocks for slaughter. As flankers to the main army a detachment of militia and Chilean emigrants left San Juan under Cabot by the northern passes, marching upon Coquimbo and Copiapo. To the south another detachment, composed of

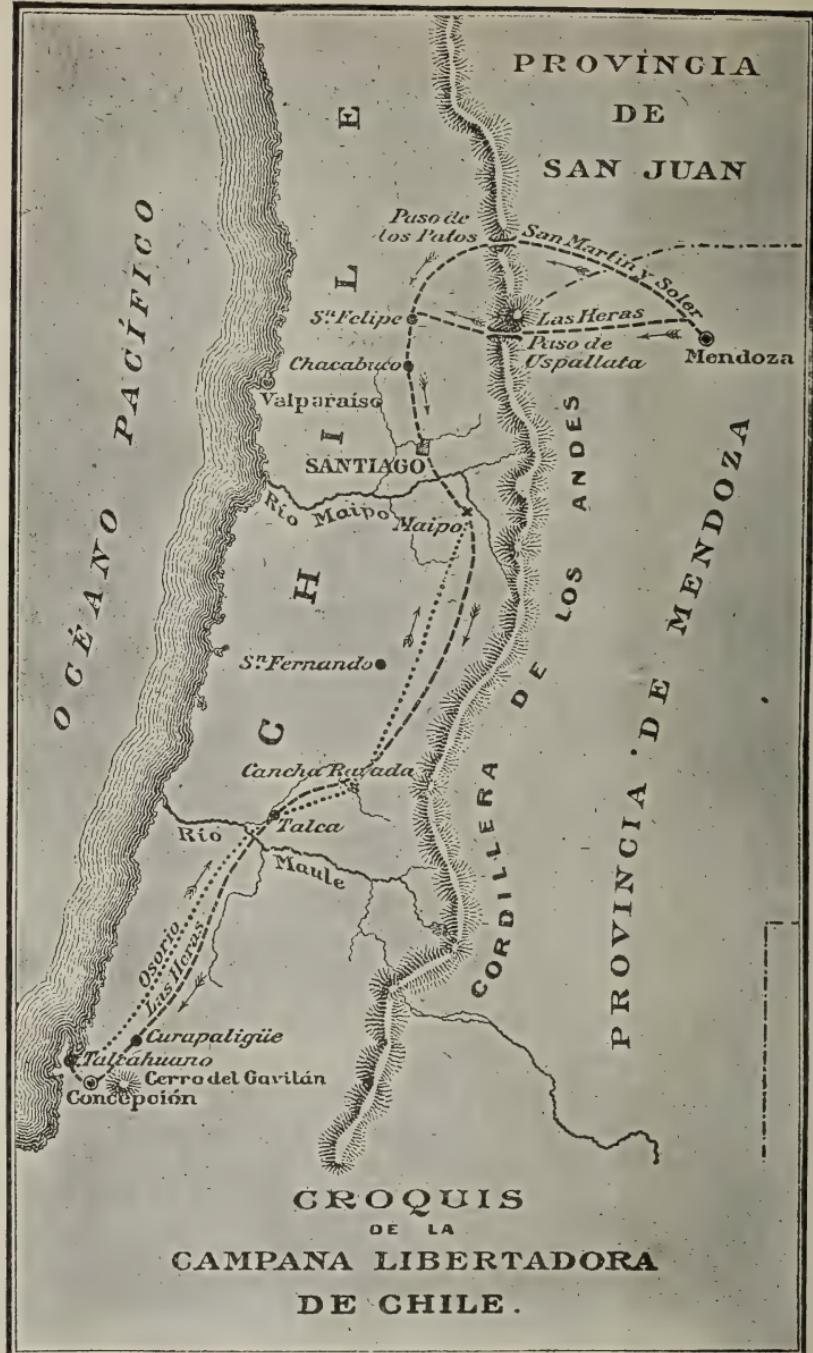
mounted infantry, grenadiers, and Chilenos marched under Captain Freire, in support of the Chilean guerillas. Both the main body and the detachments had orders to debouch on Chilean territory from February 6th to 8th; it was in the year 1817. As the leading files of the army entered the passes, San Martin wrote January 24th to his friend Godoy Cruz: "This afternoon I leave to join the army. God grant me success in this great enterprise." The road on which the main division traveled was very difficult; and on account of the great elevation and its nearness to the eternal snows of the higher peaks, the cold was very intense. It freezes hard there every night, even in midsummer. The rarification of the air caused many of the men to drop from the ranks.

It was only on the eve of the departure that San Martin had explained his plan in its entirety to his generals. The plain of Chacabuco in Chile was the objective point; there the army divisions were to concentrate to beat the principal force of the enemy and to seize the capital.

Cabot had left San Juan January 12th and on February 8th he issued from the northern passes. The whole province of Coquimbo rose in arms to welcome him. Captain Ceballos, detached by him, routed a royalist force of 100 men on the plains of Salada, capturing 2 small guns and 40 prisoners. By the 12th Cabot was master of the entire province. On the same day Davila took the city of Copiapo and consequently the whole north of Chile was in the power of the patriots.

Captain Freire, having issued from a southern pass, had routed the Spaniards in a skirmish at the southern extreme of the line of operation and had occupied the city of Talca on the same 12th of February. He was at once joined by the Chilean guerillas.

Marco had dispatched 1000 men under Colonel Atero to reconnoiter the pass on which Las Heras with the artillery was advancing. On January 24th the advanced posts of Las Heras were attacked by the enemy at Pichueta, on the eastern



slope of the Cordillera. A re-enforcement under Major Martinez after two hours' fighting drove the royalists across the summit. San Martin, on hearing of this, at once dispatched Major Arcos with 200 men to seize the pass of Achupallas. Arcos found the guard there strongly re-enforced, but attacked at once and the day was decided by Lieutenant John Ovalle of the mounted grenadiers, who led there the first of those desperate charges of cavalry for which he was afterwards so renowned. Early in the morning of February 2nd Las Heras crossed the summit of the Cordillera. On the 4th an advanced post of the royalists was, at Guardia Vieja, attacked by Major Martinez and carried at the point of the bayonet. Thereupon Las Heras, in obedience to express orders from San Martin, retired upon his reserve. Atero, deceived by the countermarch of Las Heras in the idea that he was in full retreat, left the pass open, and without further trouble Las Heras debouched on the plain on the 8th and occupied Santa Rosa.

Also in other preliminary fights the patriots were successful. The royalist fugitives reported that the enemy were tall men, armed with very long swords, and that their charges no cavalry in Chile could resist. On the 8th the divisions encamped in the valley of Putaendo and were enthusiastically welcomed by the inhabitants. While the whole army crossed the river Acongagua by a bridge, a squadron of grenadiers under Melian advanced to the hill of Chacabuco and was there met by advanced parties of the column of Las Heras. Beltram had lost 6000 mules out of 10,000 and two-thirds of his horses; but he had brought all his guns with him.

Thus the preliminary operations were crowned with success. A strategic combination of movements over a frontage of 1300 miles was completed in every particular on the day prefixed by the author of the plan. San Martin had reason to be proud of the exploit; but neither then nor at any later date was he ever known to boast of it; he had at that time

much else to think of. His cavalry horses were for the most part foundered by the passage of the rugged defiles; and he had no time to lose, if he was to fight a decisive battle on the 15th, as he had promised. The judgment of posterity is unanimous in respect to the importance of the passage of the Andes by San Martin, not only as a great military feat, but also for the influence it had upon the final result of the struggle for emancipation. Spanish historians speak of it as the turning point of the contest between Spain and her colonies. In German military schools it is cited as an example of the importance of discipline in an army and of the value of foresight and attention to details on the part of a general.

The passage of the Andes by San Martin was afeat requiring greater strategy and skill than the passage of the Alps by Hannibal and by Napoleon. It was unequaled, until Bolívar repeated the exploit two years later on the equator. If compared with the two former it is seen to be a much greater achievement than either of them from its effects upon the destinies of the human race. In place of vengeance, greed, or ambition, San Martin was animated by the hope of giving liberty and independence to a new world. The passage of the Andes by San Martin resulted in Maipo; the passage of the Andes by Bolívar resulted in Boyacá, two decisive victories which liberated entire nations from the slavery of foreign despotism. The passages of the Alps by Hannibal and Napoleon resulted only in the sterile victories of Trebia and of Marengo. We also see that the armies who crossed the Andes were victorious in the following battles as well as those who had traversed the Alps. Men who climb mountains, defeat their enemies.

THE BATTLE OF CHACABUCO, FEBRUARY 12TH, 1817.

From the town of San Felipe, San Martin sent a trusty spy to Santiago with instruction to bring him information of the movements of the enemy, on the third day; February 10th

all the army was united on the open plain at the foot of the slope of Chacabuco. The engineers, protected by skirmishers, reconnoitered the roads and passes leading across the Sierra. On the 11th already the spy returned, bringing answers to San Martin from his agents in the capital and copies of the secret orders of Marco. The spy had visited the barracks of the royalist troops and had counted those on the march to Chacabuco. San Martin then summoned a council of war and informed his officers that he had determined to advance without waiting for the rest of the artillery and to fight the decisive battle before the enemy had time to concentrate his forces. The army was divided into two columns; — that of the right consisted of 2100 men with seven light guns and was under Soler, and that of the left counted 1500 men with two guns and was commanded by O'Higgins. The latter was to engage the attention of the enemy in front without attacking the position; while Soler should march upon his left flank and rear, when a general advance would decide the day.

Marcó appointed Colonel Maroto of the Talavera regiment commander of the army which was assembled at Chacabuco. Maroto who reached the plain on the evening of the 11th and made a farmhouse his headquarters, found under his command 1500 infantry, 500 cavalry, and five guns, a force far inferior in number to that of the invaders; but that force was the flower of the Spanish army. That evening he strengthened an outpost on the summit of the crest, purposing to occupy the height with his whole force in the morning.

At two in the morning of February 12th, under a bright moon, the army of the Andes commenced their advance, the infantry leaving their knapsacks behind. Flanking parties from Soler's division were the first to meet the enemy, but had barely exchanged a few shots when the position was attacked by O'Higgins, who drove this advanced guard before him over the summit. The royalists retreated in good order upon the main body which had advanced three miles up the valley at

dawn of day. Maroto, believing that the whole patriot force was in pursuit of his vanguard, withdrew his army across the valley which was intersected by a muddy stream, and took a strong position on the opposite slope. Zapiola, with three squadrons of the grenadiers, harassed the retreat of the royalist vanguard and succeeded in preventing the enemy from occupying two hills at the mouth of the pass.

At 11 A. M. O'Higgins debouched from the pass and drew up his infantry in line on the open ground under the enemy's fire, while Soler advanced on another road to the enemy's left. O'Higgins afterwards said as his blood was boiling to be at them, he forgot San Martin's positive order to wait for Soler before attacking; so he gave the word to charge. His men advanced with alacrity, but were soon entangled in the muddy stream which they in vain tried to cross under the enemy's fire, and finally they retreated in disorder to the mouth of the pass. San Martin, sitting on his war-horse and seeing from the heights above the repulse of his lieutenant, at once sent off his aide-de-camp Condarco to hasten the march of Soler. This is the incident in his life which is commemorated in the equestrian statue which now graces the plaza San Martin in Buenos Aires. He then galloped down the slope and joined O'Higgins. As he reached the lower grounds he saw an extraordinary movement in the ranks of the enemy and then descried the head of Soler's column advancing rapidly on his flank.

O'Higgins again advanced, while the grenadiers under Zapiola charged the center of the enemy and sabred his artillery men at their guns; the position was carried by the bayonet. The royalist infantry then formed a square on their center. At the same time Colonel Alvarado, with the vanguard of the right wing, captured the hill on the enemy's left, while Necochea and Escalada charged the cavalry in the rear. The victors then fell simultaneously upon the square which was speedily broken. Some of the fugitives made for the farmhouse in the rear, but found their retreat cut off by Soler and

were forced to surrender at discretion. Others tried to escape by the valley, but fell there under the sabers of the grenadiers.

The royalists lost in this action 500 killed, 600 prisoners, all their artillery, one standard, and two flags; while the loss of the patriots was 12 killed and 120 wounded. But the moral effects of the victory were still greater; for the disaster of Chacabuco spread panic among the adherents of the royal cause all over Chile.

Marcó only thought of his own safety and, fleeing to Valparaiso, left the capital in the hands of the populace. On the 13th the patriot army was in full march upon Santiago. Necochea, with his squadron of grenadiers, was sent in advance to maintain order in the city; next day the army entered amid the enthusiastic plaudits of the inhabitants. Maroto and other fugitives reached Valparaiso and at once embarked; the rest were made prisoners among whom was Marcó himself who had not even energy enough for a rapid flight. San Martin received the late governor-general with great affability. A junta of Santiago citizens appointed San Martin supreme director of Chile which position he, however, refused to accept on account of the second part of his continental plan. In his stead Bernhard O'Higgins was elected with ample powers for an indefinite term. The first act of the new government was to send a vessel to the island of Juan Fernandez to bring the patriots home who had been kept there as prisoners. Then the reprisals against the royalists began — the two butchers San Bruno and Villalobos, assassins of prisoners in jail, were shot in the center of the plaza; the new archbishop, J. S. Rodriguez, a decided enemy of the patriots, was exiled and sent to Mendoza; the properties of the royalist fugitives were confiscated, while those who stayed in Chile had to deliver the sum of 400,000 pesos in a few days to supply the needs of the new government and had to submit to a vigorous vigilance.

Simultaneously with these measures O'Higgins recruited new Chilean troops to pursue the war in the south.

CAMPAIGN IN THE SOUTH OF CHILE, 1817.

While the royalists, defeated at Chacabuco, fled towards Peru, a valient and experienced Spanish commander, Colonel J. Ordonyez, opposed in the south with obstinate resistance. O'Higgins dispatched against him a division at the command of the Argentine colonel J. G. Las Heras who defeated Ordonyez and forced him to shut himself up in the port of Talcahuano. There he received a re-enforcement of 1600 men, largely fugitives of Chacabuco whom the viceroy had sent back from Peru. Now the Spanish commander attacked Las Heras near Concepcion, but was routed. Immediately afterwards O'Higgins arrived with more troops and closed in upon Ordonyez on the peninsula of Talcahuano. The royalists had fortified the narrow isthmus with trenches, palisades, and seventy guns; and with their vessels they dominated the sea. All efforts of O'Higgins during six months to dislodge the enemy, were fruitless. Then General Brayer, a Frenchman, who had been a commander in the Napoleonic wars, advised to make an assault and laid the plan which O'Higgins accepted. But in spite of their impetuous boldness the patriots were repulsed, leaving the battleground strewn with dead and wounded (December 6th).

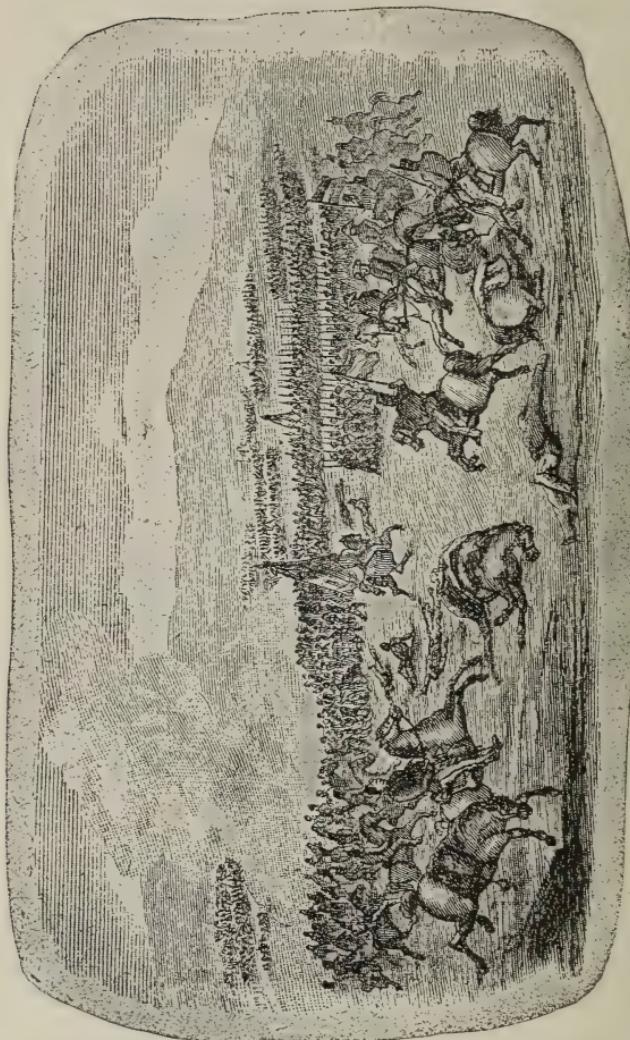
SECOND INVASION OF OSORIO, 1818.

The new year opened as bad for the patriots as the old had closed. M. Osorio, victor of Rancagua, was again sent by the new viceroy of Peru, Pezuela, and having arrived at Talcahuano with 3400 veteran soldiers united his forces with those of Ordonyez. Fortunately San Martin who had been to Buenos Aires, had returned and he anticipated that Osorio would bring his troops by sea farther north to march against Santiago. Consequently he advised O'Higgins to come to-

wards the north, while he himself intended to raise an army in Las Tablas, near Valparaiso. While he was on his return from the south O'Higgins launched a challenge at the royalist leader in the form of a declaration of independence. That absolute independence was the wish of the people they had clearly demonstrated in a public manifestation and consequently O'Higgins solemnly proclaimed Chile's independence. Near San Fernando O'Higgins and San Martin united about 7000 soldiers. Osorio crossed the river Maule with 5000, but soon had to retreat before superior forces and to close himself up in Talca. Since Osorio's retreat was cut off by the Maule his situation was difficult and quite equal to Gainza's in 1814. The royalists were saved by a surprise which had been devised and was ably directed by Ordonyez. It was the 9th day of March and San Martin's birthday when after nightfall the patriot army executed a change of position at Cancha Rayada, that Ordonyez came out of Talca to attack it. In the darkness and confusion the patriots opened fire upon one another. One ball wounded O'Higgins' arm, another killed his horse. This incident was not a battle; it was a dispersion of the patriot army. Only Las Heras could retreat in order and arrived at San Fernando with 3000 men; there San Martin and O'Higgins undertook the reorganization. Presently 5000 men awaited the royalists in the camp of Maipo, ten miles southeast of the capital.

VICTORY OF MAIPO, APRIL 5TH, 1818.

We purposely relate the closing battles, the battles of far reaching importance, somewhat in detail. Osorio advanced cautiously with his army, 5,500 strong, crossing several streams, and April 3d moved to the farmhouse of Espejo on the north bank of the river Maipo where he made his headquarters. The two armies which were to engage in a deadly struggle for the possession of Chile, now encamped in close proximity. Their forces were about equal.



BATTLE OF MAIPO
Patriot Victory, April 5th, 1818

The scene of the decisive battle of April 5th, 1818, is a plain bounded on the east by the river Mapocho which flows through the city of Santiago, on the north by a range of hills which separate it from the valley of Aconcagua, and on the south by the river Maipo which gives the plain its name. Rising ground extends through the plain, intervened by low stretches. The opposing armies were encamped on such different elevations with low land, varying from 300 to 1250 yards, between them. The position held by the patriot army commanded the three roads that lead from the Maipo to the capital and the road to Valparaiso. For the further security of the capital San Martin had entrenched the city and garrisoned it with 1000 militiamen and one battalion of infantry under command of O'Higgins whose wound, received in the nightly surprise of Cancha Rayada, precluded him from service in the field. In spite of these precautions the patriots of Santiago were making every preparation for another flight in case of defeat and when the guns roared and the battle raged they spent the hours in mortal anxiety. — The army was in three divisions—the first under Las Heras on the right, the second under Alvarado on the left, and a reserve in a second line under Quintana. Balcarce was in general command of the infantry, San Martin kept the cavalry and the reserve under his own orders. He issued the most precise orders for the regulations of the troops in action, especially enjoining upon every corps, whether cavalry or infantry, never to await a charge, but when fifty paces distant they should rush forward with saber or bayonet.

Early in the morning of the 5th San Martin, attended by a small escort, rode to the edge of the elevation to see whether the foe occupied the road to Valparaiso in case of a reverse. As he saw them occupy the high ground in front of him with their left only extending to the road, he exclaimed: "What brutes these Spaniards are! Osorio is a greater fool than I thought him to be. I take the sun for witness that the day is

ours." And the sun, looking down from a cloudless sky, was a witness of that day's heroic deeds of patriotism.—At half-past ten the patriot army advanced from its camp. On reaching the edge of the elevation the army was drawn up in order of battle, four heavy guns in the center, the light pieces and the cavalry on the wings, and the reserve two hundred yards in the rear.

The first move of the royalist general was to detach Primo de Rivera with eight companies of infantry and four guns to occupy a detached hill on his left threatening the patriots' right, taking them in flank if they crossed the low ground and securing, as he thought, the road to Valparaiso, Morgado with some cavalry keeping up the connection with the main body. The crest of the elevation was occupied by the infantry in two divisions with four guns each, the rest of the cavalry being stationed on the extreme right. Both armies were in such excellent positions that neither could attack except at a disadvantage.

San Martin, uncertain of the whereabouts of the enemy's artillery, was the first to open fire with his four heavy guns from the center. The reply gave him the information he required and he at once ordered the two divisions to attack the enemy. Las Heras advanced resolutely with the 11th battalion, under the protection of the four guns on the hill, to another hill to the right of Primo de Rivera, while the grenadiers under Escalada, Medina, and Zapiola drove Morgado and his horsemen in confusion from the field. Rivera was thus cut off from Osorio's main body. At the same time the left wing crossed the lowlands and, ascending the opposite slope, reached the high ground without seeing an enemy, but were then vigorously charged by the bulk of the royalist infantry under Ordonyez and Moria and driven back with heavy losses. But the royalists, pursuing them down the slope, were in their turn forced to retire by a withering fire from the Chilean guns under Borgonyo which had remained on the

crest. San Martin now sent orders to Quintana to advance at once with the reserve in support of the left wing by an oblique movement across the low grounds so as to fall upon the flank of the Spanish infantry. On his way Quintana was joined by three battalions of those that had been driven back. They fell with great impetuosity upon the royalists, who, however, held their ground most tenaciously. Meanwhile Freyre, with the Chilean cavalry, had charged and put to flight the royalist calvary on the right and now came back to fall upon the flank of their infantry. Alvarado, having rallied his broken division, came with Borgonyo and his eight guns to the assistance of Quintana. The royalists then gave way and abandoned all their positions. After Osorio had sent orders to Rivera to withdraw from his advanced position he fled, leaving Ordoneyz in command who at once commenced to retreat upon the farm house of Espejo which was accomplished in excellent order. At this moment O'Higgins appeared upon the field, and meeting San Martin, greeted him as the saviour of Chile. But it was already five o'clock and the battle not yet entirely won. Ordoneyz, though with heavy loss, had made his retreat to the farm-house good where he made the most active preparation for defense.

Las Heras, who was in pursuit of the enemy's left wing, was the first commander to arrive at the house, but found several detached corps there before him. He immediately ordered the occupation of the high grounds around the farm-house which commanded the position; but Balcarce coming up ordered an immediate attack upon the road. Colonel Thompson with a battalion of Chilean light infantry led the assault, but was beaten back with grape and musketry, losing 250 killed and having all his officers wounded. Borgonyo and Blanco Encalada then opened fire with seventeen guns from the high ground and soon drove the enemy from his outer defenses into the houses and vineyards. Then the 11th battalion, supported by pickets of the 7th and 8th, broke their way

through the mud walls and took the buildings by assault. The carnage that ensued was frightful and it went on until Las Heras succeeded in putting a stop to it. Ordonyez and all his principal officers, with the exception of Rodil who escaped, gave up their swords to Las Heras. The victory was complete. This was the hardest fought battle in all the war of independence. The royalists lost 1000 killed, 2200 prisoners, one general, 11 colonels, 150 officers, 12 guns, 4 flags, and a large quantity of small arms, ammunition, and baggage. The patriots lost more than 1000 killed and wounded; the greatest sufferers were the freed Negroes of Cuyo, San Martin's Argentine captaincy, of whom more than half remained upon the field.

Great tactical skill was displayed by San Martin in this battle. The victory was achieved by the opportune attack of the reserve upon the enemy's weakest flank; it was the oblique movement. This movement had been invented by the Greek general Epaminondas, of antiquity. San Martin, like this general, won only two great battles and he won them by the oblique movement. The importance of the victory of Maipo was only equaled by that of Boyacá and that of Ayacucho, both of which were won later, and without Maipo neither the one nor the other would have been fought. Maipo crushed the spirit of the Spanish army in America and of all adherents to the cause of royalty from Mexico to Patagonia, and set the zeal forever upon Chile's independence.

San Martin had witnessed the flight of Osorio and though he sent O'Brien after him with a party of cavalry, the fugitive escaped to the coast, leaving his carriage with all his correspondence in the hands of his pursuers. He reached Talcahuano with 14 men April 14th and was there joined by 600 fugitives. As San Martin left off pursuing him, Osorio made use of this respite to strengthen himself in Talcahuano and Concepcion, and, by calling in outlying detachments, succeeded in collecting 1200 men by the middle of May. Viceroy Pezuela of Peru comprehended the gravity of the disaster of Maipo,

but was unable to replenish Osorio with re-enforcement, seeing it necessary for himself to make preparation against invasions. Thus Osorio was in the sore plight of sustaining himself in Chile as best he could. May 21st he sent two detachments across the Nuble, one of which surprised the town of Parrol. Zapiola, who had been dispatched by San Martin with 250 grenadiers to maintain order in the south, where guerillas began to commit depredations, sent off Captain Cajavilla with 200 horse to retake Parrol, which task he gallantly accomplished, capturing 70 prisoners. Lieutenant Rodriguez cut the other detachment to pieces at Chirihue. This put a stop to the royalists' efforts at that time. — Osorio, fearing that he would be attacked in spring by the united patriot army, resolved to evacuate Talcahuano and to return to Peru. Consequently he left Colonel Sanchez in command of the royalists and, after dismantling the fortifications, sailed for Callao with 35 heavy guns, a great quantity of war material, and 700 Spanish troops, — all that remained of the strong re-enforcements he had brought with him.

CAPTURE OF THE MARIA ISABEL.

However, great difficulties had still to be overcome. We shall refer to two only — the Spaniards had to be expelled from the south of Chile, and a fleet had to be purchased and equipped to control the Pacific that was still under the sway of the Peruvian viceroy's vessels. Therefore, the Chilean government confiscated the properties of fugitive royalists and asked the people for contributions and loans to buy vessels from England and the United States, a mountain of difficulties thus presenting itself. Finally, after all difficulties had been surmounted, the Chilean government was so fortunate as to secure five vessels, to equip them with 143 guns and man them with 1,100 marines. About that time it was learned that Ferdinand VII., to fight the Chilenos, had dispatched an expedition of 2000 soldiers in nine transport vessels which were pro-

tected by the war vessel Maria Isabel carrying 40 guns. Against this expedition the small Chilean squadron sailed from Valparaiso under M. Blanco Encalada, an Argentino, who had served in the Spanish marine. Among the foreigners who accompanied him the North American Chas. Wooster distinguished himself. The Maria Isabel had scarcely entered the Talcahuano harbor, when it was attacked by the patriot squadron. The Spaniards, seeing their danger, ran their vessel up against the shore to put it under the protection of the royalist land batteries which, however, were not able to prevent the patriots from capturing the Maria Isabel. Then the Chileños waited for the arrival of the transports; five of the nine fell successively into their hands with 700 soldiers, and of the rest of the expedition only 600 men succeeded in reaching the royalists on land. Thirty-eight days after their departure from Valparaiso the small Chilean squadron entered triumphantly into the same harbor with its rich spoil.

Colonel Sanchez who had been left by Osorio in the command of the remnant of royalists to harrass the patriots, was forced by these to retreat farther south, and with great difficulty he reached Valdivia which was still controlled by the royalists; there he also embarked for Peru. The whole north, center, and south as far as Valdivia were now in the hands of the patriots. Colonel Freire who had been appointed intendente of Concepcion reestablished the republican authority and methods in all the towns of the Araucanian frontier and inaugurated a government of conciliation and clemency.

LORD COCHRANE.

Meanwhile the Chilean squadron scoured the seas vigorously under the command of Vice-admiral Thomas Cochrane, Count of Dunderald, who was an English sailor of European reputation. Having been accused in England of having divulged false reports concerning the wars of Napoleon for the purpose of doing exchange business, he had been expelled

from the English marine and deprived of his honors; later, however, his former position and distinctions were restored to him. Like others of his countrymen, Lord Cochrane had come to Chile to serve in its struggle for independence. Commanding the Chilean navy he swept the Peruvian coast twice and even reached Guayaquil, seizing some merchant vessels and forcing the Spanish war vessels to hide behind the fortifications of Callao. Cochrane not being able to attack them there, went south and planned to capture the forts of Valdivia. Valdivia is situated some fifteen miles from the Pacific, on the banks of a navigable river, and was at the time protected by 118 guns and more than 1000 soldiers in nine forts. Cochrane had but three vessels and Intendente Freire aided him with 250 soldiers who were commanded by Major George Beuchef, a French soldier, who also had been in Napoleon's campaigns. With these scant forces Cochrane appeared unexpectedly before Valdivia. Before the Spaniards could prepare resistance the Chilenos had taken some of the forts; the rest were forced to surrender and consequently Valdivia also was incorporated into the new republic (February 4th, 1820).

THE LIBERATING EXPEDITION TO PERU, 1820.

During Lord Cochrane's exploits O'Higgins and San Martin brought the fleet and the army in readiness that should invade Peru. The first half of San Martin's vast project had been gloriously concluded and now he got ready to carry the second half into effect; O'Higgins was his stand-by. Immense difficulties had to be overcome in two directions. *On the one hand* the Argentine government had authorized San Martin's expedition to Chile but with ill-will and now opposed his expedition to Peru. It was that fatal year 1820 in which ten governments of the Argentine Republic violently succeeded one another. Anarchy gnawed at the very life of the provinces and the Argentine army of Upper Peru dissolved itself therein.—Besides the anarchy, the Spanish general La Serna

threatened Upper Peru with a powerful army, and at the same time it was learned that the Spanish king got a numerous army in readiness in Cadiz against the river La Plata. This was the same army from which Morillo in Venezuela, had expected help, but which revolted and stayed in Spain, to the great release of the patriots north and south. The Argentine presidents consequently, on account of the internal strife and the danger approaching from the outside, ordered San Martin to repass the Andes with his army in order to control the anarchy and to defend the country against the Spaniards. But San Martin, believing to render his country greater services by continuing in his undertaking, resisted his government's order, i. e. he disobeyed. This disobedience resulted in sad experiences for him later; but in the light of history it was the higher wisdom. Some of his Argentine troops, apparently under the leadership of General Las Heras, followed their government's call and returned; the majority, however, stayed with San Martin. But this majority was less than one-third of the troops who were being enlisted for the expedition to Peru, more than two-thirds being Chilenos. *On the other hand* Chile's poverty became a great drawback in the undertaking; for the young republic was impoverished through the seven years' war and now the expenses of the expeditionary fleet and army rested exclusively upon her. Despite all the difficulties O'Higgins and San Martin persevered in the preparations and succeeded in uniting, after the most strenuous exertions, 8 war and 16 transport vessels, 4,100 men, provisions for six months, and arms for 15,000 soldiers. Never had such a strong expedition navigated the Pacific. The Chilean navy commanded by Lord Cochrane sailed out of the harbor of Valparaiso August 20th, 1820, carrying the liberating army with San Martin in command.

In Peru San Martin did not fight any battles, but his movements obliged Viceroy La Serna to abandon Lima and to retreat to the mountains. The Peruvian forces of Upper

Peru had to be withdrawn to defend the viceroyship and did not menace the Argentine patriots any longer. Since San Martin had foreseen this, could he have served his country better? In Lima he proclaimed the independence of Peru; but as will be seen in the revolutionary history of that country he did not prosecute the war. After an interview with Bolívar he withdrew from the field and left to his rival the glory of consummating the liberty of Peru and of carrying the great revolution of the whole continent to a finish in the battles of Junin and Ayacucho.

ADMINISTRATION OF O'HIGGINS.

The glorious labors of war did not impede O'Higgins from attending to the moral and material progress of the young republic. Although he ordered to suppress the scutcheons and titles of nobility to eradicate the remnants of royalty, yet he created the order, called "legion of merit" to reward the good servants of the republic, which was not good republican sentiment. He re-opened the public library and the National Institute and established a military academy. He prohibited the unhealthy custom of burying the dead in the churches and opened the first cemeteries. O'Higgins built market places in Santiago and beautified the city by opening wide streets; such as, the Alameda de las Delicias which is the most beautiful street the author has ever seen. By finishing the Maipo canal he turned a barren plain into green fields where somewhat later a town was founded which was called San Bernardo in remembrance and to the honor of Bernhard O'Higgins. The president managed the scant funds of the country economically and fitly and Chile's credit rose abroad. In the last year of his government O'Higgins sent a commissioner to London who obtained a loan of 5,000,000 pesos from English capitalists.

O'HIGGINS' DICTATURE.

When San Martin withdrew from Peru, he was vexed to hear that he had wanted to make himself a sovereign and

wrote: "The presence of a successful soldier, no matter how much disinterestedness he may have, is feared by the states that constitute themselves anew." This fear was, at least in part, realized by O'Higgins. Strong through the prestige of victories and through the grand services he had rendered his country, his inclination to dictatorial power grew firmer and the organization of a democratic republican government was postponed. Having in the first years of his administration still war on hand he deemed it necessary to have a central and strong government, one that could direct the war and suffocate anarchical uprisings, such as damaged the neighboring republic of Argentina and the Colombian Confederation. O'Higgins cared neither for constitutions, nor for congresses, nor for full liberty; these according to his judgment engendered fatal factions. Nor did he think the ignorant people capable of enjoying full liberty, in which thought he agreed with our statesmen who say that a republic is secure only in the enlightenment, in the intellectual and moral development, of its citizens. During six years O'Higgins happily kept anarchy aloof; but he was in those years an absolute king, a dictator whose will was the country's law. However, finally O'Higgins yielded to public opinion and agreed to call an assembly which might formulate a constitution. The cabildo named representatives who should meet with those of the government. This assembly framed a constitution which, however, left to the supreme director about the same unlimited powers he had exercised thus far. The public ill-will then became general and increased the dissatisfaction with the existing government.

O'HIGGINS' ABDICATION.

At last the storm broke loose. The people of Concepcion revolted and proclaimed the illustrious General Freire supreme director, under whose orders all the towns south of the river Maule put themselves. In the far south and the north of the country analogous movements took place. In Santiago the

most notable citizens met in the large consulate hall and asked the director to attend their deliberations. O'Higgins, forsaken by his troops, had to yield and appeared before the assembly. The citizens brought their complaints respectfully, but also with republican integrity, and asked him to lay down the reins of government, to the end that the overthrow of the country might be prevented. O'Higgins did not think of resisting. Then — January 28th, 1823 — and there he resigned his position and placed the government in the hands of a provisional junta, composed of three citizens. Soon after he left for Peru, separating himself from the country which he had served so well and which he could not see any more. Sad! Abdication meant free-will banishment. All the great leaders of the revolution passed through the same sad experience.

ADVENTURES AND DRASTIC ENDS OF THE CARRERAS.

As the Carrera brothers acted an important part in the Chilean revolution, let us briefly follow their subsequent careers to see how they ended.

While San Martin and O'Higgins organized the army of the Andes in Mendoza, Don J. M. Carrera, having been rejected by the first, went to Buenos Aires where his brothers and some companions joined him. He embarked for the United States to look for the means which he thought were necessary to liberate his adopted country, Chile. After a year of incredible labors he succeeded in gaining a few American merchants who furnished him five vessels and equipment on credit. He also engaged about 30 English and French officers and then returned to Buenos Aires where a few days after his arrival the news of the victory of Chacabuco spread. Carrera spoke of going to the Pacific with his expedition to co-operate in the destruction of the Spaniards. But Pueyrredon who then was the supreme director of the Argentine affairs, fearing that the Carreras would bring discord to Chile, prohibited the expedition to leave and finally had J. M. Carrera

arrested. The latter, however, escaped and went to Montevideo; his plan frustrated entirely and the North American merchants were the losers.

Exasperated by the persecutions which his brothers experienced, they resolved to pursue their course over land to Chile secretly and there to excite a revolution to overthrow their hated rivals, San Martin and O'Higgins. The two brothers left Buenos Aires on different days and over different routes; but the two were recognized and arrested separately and were united in the jail of Mendoza. San Martin's secretary, the very active lawyer B. Monteagudo was sent to Mendoza to accelerate the trial which the governor of the town had already initiated. The two Carreras were sentenced for conspiracy and were shot on the plaza of Mendoza. Some hours later the town bells announced the victory of Maipo which had been won three days previous.

Don J. M. Carrera swore to avenge his brothers' deaths. To clear himself from suspicion and to attack his opponents, he became a publisher in Montevideo. Later he united himself with some federal Argentine chiefs for the purpose of changing the hostile government of Buenos Aires and of opening the way to invade Chile. During more than two years he was in many combats, alternately victorious and defeated, and, embracing anarchy, he took a leading part in the overthrow of governments by which the very existence of the Argentine Republic was threatened in the unfortunate year 1820. When men more friendly to him entered upon the Argentine presidency he was allowed to organize a body of Chilenos of whom he brought 600 men together to invade Chile. But the energetic plenipotentiary of Chile in Buenos Aires, M. Zanyartu, left nothing undone to defeat the plans of the Chilean adventurer and succeeded in urging his men to leave him. Carrera, almost forsaken and left alone, united himself with the Pampas Indians whose depredations, however, he could not control and finally resolved to force his way into Chile with the

few companions that were faithful to him. In this endeavor he was attacked and defeated by forces from Mendoza and delivered into the hands of the authorities by his own men. There he was sentenced and shot on the same plaza on which three years previous an equal fate had befallen his two brothers. Nemesis: This same J. M. Carrera, out of culpable ambition, had banished Dr. Rozas, the first promoter of Chile's independence, to Mendoza where he had died, sad and alone; and in the same place Carrera now found his own drastic end.

INDEPENDENCE AND ORGANIZATION OF THE
COLOMBIAN CONFEDERATION.*1815 to 1823.*

At the close of the year 1815, after many tenacious battles had been fought, Venezuela's revolution had completely collapsed and the country had to submit to the vigorous despotism of *Brigadier-general Salvador de Moxo*, while cruel Morillo pacified New Granada. Only a few patriotic leaders continued to annoy the royalists on the interior plains of the rivers Orinoco and Apure. The rest were fugitives; Bolivar, the liberator, and a few others had gone to Jamaica. The small island Margarita in front of Cumana served some patriots as asylum, among whom was Colonel J. B. Arizmendi. This leader, though he was pursued by the governor of the island, with about 30 companions overpowered the garrison of a port, killing every Spaniard. Then under Arizmendi's flag soon 1500 men rallied with whom, though they were but poorly armed, the leader began a fight without quarter on the island. The larger part was already in the hands of the patriots when untiring Bolivar arrived at its coast.

As Bolivar had not been able to procure help in Jamaica, he had gone to Haiti whose Negro president, A. Pition, had received him cordially and furnished him some of the resources he sought to make Venezuela independent. The rich Hollander *Louis Brion* also assisted, furnishing seven merchantmen which he equipped for the struggle. Bolivar having come with an expedition of 250 to Margarita, disposed that Maringo and Piar go to operate in the east of Venezuela, while he wanted to go farther west, and he landed at a point west of Caracas. On that coast the false alarm was circulating that the wild Spanish leader Morales was approaching. The expeditionists ran to embark and sailed away with Bolivar, without waiting for many of their companions. Among those left behind was the

Scotch general *Mac Gregor*. This young commander was soon followed by 650 men who undertook a campaign towards the east that became heroic and memorable. Among enemies much more numerous than themselves they traversed 450 miles, fought various royalist bodies, gained two splendid victories, and even occupied the important city Barcelona. Here Mac Gregor was attacked by Morales, but he routed the Spaniards, throwing them into utter confusion (September 17th, 1816). With Mac Gregor's feats correspond those of young *J. A. Paez*. Captain Paez received the command of 500 knights one day and in the following night he attacked a division of 1500 Spaniards at Mata de la Miel, inflicting great mortality and taking 400 prisoners; their lives he spared. Four months later he destroyed an army of 2000 royalists in the battle of Montecal. Though always lacking provisions and ammunitions that valiant captain fought the royalists a hundred times in the regions of the Apure river.

Bolivar, having landed on the continent, did not meet with recognition. Even the patriots of Cumana whom General Bermudez commanded, did not want to know him. Rejected by the commander and accused of being a coward and a traitor, the liberator, feeling insulted and sad in heart, returned to Haiti to look for his friend Pition. Unselfish Brion was one of the few who remained faithful to him, and as the Hollander had influence because he was the owner of the vessels, he finally succeeded in his effort to have *Bolivar called to direct* the war in Venezuela again. Having landed at Barcelona, the liberator resolved to unite himself with the guerilla patriots of the Orinoco and to continue the campaign in the east that had happily been begun by Piar and other patriotic chiefs. Four months after his arrival Bolivar came to the Orinoco where the Spanish general *M. Latorre* was besieged in fort Angostura. Bolivar closed in upon the fort, while Admiral Brion fought the Spanish vessels at the mouth of the Orinoco and then ascended the river to assist Bolivar. At-

tacked in front and from behind Latorre was forced to evacuate the fort and to abandon the whole province (May, 1817). This victory of Angostura rehabilitated the prestige of Bolívar, so that all the patriots, even Bermudez himself, now conceded that he was the ablest and most aggressive leader. However, Bolívar's political plans did not suit all; serious opposition arose against them, which the liberator dissolved by force.

When the Spanish general *Morillo*, the pacifier, had returned from New Granada to Venezuela in 1816, he found that the revolution had again assumed great proportions. The triumphs of Paez on the plains of the Apure caused him to open a campaign in person against that patriotic chief (January, 1817). Obliged to withdraw before Morillo's 4000 men, Paez set the dry grass of the prairie on fire to impede the infantry to come to the assistance of the cavalry and with but 111 horsemen he defeated the latter completely. The Spanish army had to retreat and was tenaciously pursued by Paez, who charged them fourteen different times in the retreat. After this, Morillo undertook a campaign against the rebels of the island of Margarita which was a hotbed of the revolutionists of the east. During one entire month Morillo fought in vain to take the island, which has been compared to ancient heroic Sparta in its defense. This defense together with the news of the capture of Angostura by the patriots which took place at this time, obliged Morillo to return to Carácas.

While he was in the capital and pondered over the conditions which were adverse to the Spanish cause, Morillo thought of improving his situation by adopting conciliatory methods. He, therefore, took the government out of the hands of hated Moxo and a little later published the pardon which the king had granted to the rebels of Venezuela. Notwithstanding or probably in spite of the pardon, Bolívar marched with the whole patriotic army boldly to meet Morillo who had marched to encamp on the plains of Calabozo, surprised the royalist forces February 12th, 1818, routed them, and obliged them to shut

themselves up in the town of the same name. Bolivar did not make use of this advantage and allowed the enemy to retire towards Caracas. Then the patriots took up the pursuit, but were repulsed in various encounters and finally completely defeated in La Puerta, the same place where four years previously Boves had defeated Morinyo and even Bolivar. Valiant Paez came to Bolivar's assistance, kept the enemy back, and protected his retreat towards Angostura. This victory secured Morillo the title Marshal de La Puerta which Ferdinand VII. sent him.

Bolivar undertook other work. The cessation of the Napoleonic wars in Europe in 1815 had left many warriors without occupation. Bolivar called for experienced British officers to come to serve in the patriotic army and also for volunteer soldiers, who were attracted by offers of recompense. The officers came and were teaching the patriotic soldiers military discipline and subordination and the liberator was organizing new battalions with the English and Scotch auxiliaries who had followed the call when Admiral Brion arrived at Angostura with arms and ammunitions which he had acquired in the West Indies. Angostura was made the provisional capital of the state, because the town's happy situation on the Orinoco afforded direct communication with the West Indian islands. Bolivar then proceeded to call a general congress of representatives. As Spain had solicited the intervention of the European powers to re-establish her authority in South America, the liberator desired to manifest his views clearly and declared November 20th, 1818, in a solemn manner that Venezuela is, by divine and human right, a free and independent state and that only in the capacity of nation with nation would she negotiate with Spain. Congress having assembled, Bolivar was chosen president of the republic and chief of the army; his powers were extended and his authority strengthened.

Meanwhile Morillo at the head of 6,500 men had again

marched out against never defeated Paez. After many useless marches across the llanos of the Apure the arrogant Count of Cartagena and Marshal of La Puerta had to withdraw without having even been able to pursue the light cavalry of Paez who commanded 2000 horsemen at the time. Fatigued by crossing apparently unlimited marshes and briar lands, the supplies cut off, attacked when least expected, and pursued incessantly by enemies who did not offer a battle, Morillo lost 1000 men in that retreat. Bolivar came to unite his forces with those of Paez on the Apure llanos, continuing the campaign in those regions. In the engagement of Media April 2nd, 1819, 150 riders commanded by Paez defeated 1000 Spanish cavalrymen, inflicting a loss of 400 upon them.

About at this time Bolivar received a communication from Bernhard O'Higgins who then was supreme director of Chile, in which he invited the liberator to assist in the campaign against Peru, as this country was the center of the Spanish resources on the continent. For this purpose O'Higgins and San Martin who had the previous year destroyed the Spanish power in Chile in the glorious battle of Maipo, were then making vast preparations. Bolivar comprehended the immensity of the project which had originated with San Martin, as we learned. Having heard from another source that the despotism of Viceroy Sámano of New Granada had provoked the formation of numerous patriotic guerilla bands in that country, the liberator resolved to make use of Morillo's retreat and to return to New Granada, initiating thus his most glorious and memorable campaign. He left Paez on the llanos of the Apure, between Morillo and Sámano, and with 2500 men marched in the direction of Bogata, thinking of strengthening his column on the way with the guerillas of the New Granadian general Santander, who might form the vanguard. The march became most strenuous; for as far as Pore which lies at the foot of the Andes Bolivar's soldiers had to traverse very extensive lowlands, inundated by tropical rains, and had

to cross rapid torrents, marching at times in water reaching up to the waists. On leaving Pore the scene changed; for the expedition entered the rugged paths of the Colombian Andes, taking the direction of Tunja.

BOLIVAR CROSSES THE ANDES, 1819.

Will the reader compare Bolivar's passage of the Andes with Hannibal's feat when he crossed the Alps from France into Italy 218 B. C. Hannibal had a larger army, of course; but where 1000 men cross, 50,000 may cross. And the Andes are higher than the Alps and their passes are just as steep and rugged as the Alpine passes, or are more so. It is, therefore, our opinion that Bolivar's courage was as sublime and his achievement as great in 1819 as Hannibal's of old. San Martin's army had two years previous already crossed the southern Andes from Argentina to Chile.

The snowy peaks of the eastern Cordillera appeared in the distance. Instead of peaceful lakes through which they had waded, they were now met by great masses of water tumbling down from the heights. The roads ran along the edges of precipices and were borded by gigantic trees upon whose tops rested the clouds which dissolved themselves in incessant rains. After a four days' march the horses foundered; an entire squadron of llaneros deserted when they could not ride on horseback. The torrents were crossed on narrow trembling bridges, formed of trunks of trees. Where the torrents were passable, the current was so strong that the infantry had to pass two by two, with their arms thrown round each other's shoulders. And woe to him who lost his footing; he lost his life too. Bolivar frequently passed and repast these torrents on horseback, carrying behind him the sick and weakly, or the women who accompanied their men. There the temperature was still moist and warm; at night life was supportable by the aid of little fire.

But as they ascended the mountain, the scene changed

again. Immense rocks piled one upon another and hills of snow bounded the view on every side; below lay the clouds, veiling the depth of the abyss; an ice cold wind cut through the stoutest clothing. At these heights no other noise is heard than the roaring torrents left behind and the screams of the condor circling round the snowy peaks above. Vegetation disappears, only linchens are to be seen clinging to the rocks and a tall plant bearing plumes instead of leaves and crowned with yellow flowers like to funeral torches. To make the scene more dreary yet the path was marked out by crosses, erected in memory of travelers who had perished by the way. On entering the glacial region, the provisions gave out; the cattle they had brought with them as their chief resource could not go further. They reached the summit by the Paya pass where a battalion could have held an entire army in check. It was held by an outpost of 300 Spaniards who were dislodged by the vanguard under Santander without much difficulty.

Now the men began to murmur. Bolivar called a council of war to whom he pointed out the greater difficulties that still lay before them, and he asked if they wanted to persevere or go back. All were of the opinion that they should go on, a decision which infused fresh spirit into the weary troops. In this passage more than 100 men died of cold and exposure, fifty of whom were Englishmen. No horse had survived. It was necessary to leave the spare arms behind and even some of those that were carried by the soldiers. When the army reached Socha in the beautiful valley of Sagomoso in the heart of the province of Tunja July 6th, 1819, it had dwindled to a mere skeleton. Bolivar had endured it all with incomparable courage, attending to his troops and dividing with the sick the little he had left from rice, crackers, and sugar. While in Socha Bolivar sent assistance back to the stragglers left behind, collected horses, detached parties to scour the country around, and communicated with some few guerillas who still roamed about.

Bolivar rested his men three days and then had to act; for Barreiro, the Spanish commander, occupied a position which commanded the main road to Bogata; it was necessary to attack him before he could receive re-enforcement from that city or from Morillo. No sooner had Bolivar his army once more in hand when by a skillful flank movement he established himself on Barreiro's rear, in a country abounding in resources. The royalists were forced to evacuate their entrenchments and a hard fought, but indecisive action took place July 25th, after which Bolivar recrossed the Sagomoso river and forced Barreiro again to change his position. Then deceiving him, too, by a retreat in the day time, he rapidly counter-marched by night, and August 5th captured the city of Tunja where he found good stores of arms and war material and where he placed himself between Barreiro's force and the army of Bogata. Barreiro, finding his communication cut, marched resolutely towards the capital; but it was too late. Bolivar had command of all the roads. Seeing that the royalists were advancing by the shortest road which crosses the small river Boyacá by a bridge, he posted his army on the right bank and waited for them.

THE BATTLE OF BOYACA, AUGUST 7TH, 1819.

The battle of August 7th commenced upon the bridge itself where the Spanish skirmishers were driven back. Barreiro then formed his infantry in columns with cavalry on the flanks, throwing out a battalion of light infantry on the right whose fire might enfilade the attacking columns of the patriots. The two contending forces were of about equal strength. The patriot center and right wings drove in an advanced party of royalist infantry and crossing a shallow stream threw themselves upon the left wing of the royalist army, while the left patriot wing which consisted of cavalry attacked in front. The royalist cavalry fled, the infantry retreated to a fresh position, but on a second attack threw their arms down. The vanguard

under Santander took care of all who were not with the main body. The victory was complete. Anzuategui who led the infantry of the right and the center and Rondon who led the final charge of the llanero horse, were the heroes of the day. The English auxiliaries were seen for the first time under fire and showed that British solidity for which they were always famous. The trophies of the battle were 1600 prisoners, including Barreiro himself and 37 officers, 100 killed, and all their artillery and small arms. Barreiro and his principal officers were cruelly executed by order of General Santander who had risen in rebellion on account of the cruelties the Spaniards had committed against the patriots.

Boyacá is after Maipo the great battle of South America. It has been called the Colombian Waterloo and gave the preponderance of the patriot arms to the north, as Maipo had done to the south. It gave independence to New Granada and isolated Morillo in Venezuela. Three days after the battle Viceroy Samano fled from Bogata, leaving 1,000,000 pesos in the treasury. When Bolívar entered the capital, he was applauded by the people who proclaimed him liberator of New Granada.

After Bolívar had achieved these splendid results, he thought of entering upon a plan which he had cherished for a long time; namely, to organize one great republic by uniting Venezuela and New Granada. The Granadian general F. P. Santander, who had accompanied Bolívar's expedition as leader of the vanguard, declared himself in favor of that union. With this plan in mind Bolívar returned to Venezuela, leaving Santander in charge of the New Granadian affairs. His long march was a series of uninterrupted ovations. He united again with Paez on the plain of the Apure and entered the plaza of Angostura to give congress an account of the campaign. Congress having accepted the idea of uniting Venezuela with New Granada, laid down the fundamental law, or the constitution, of the larger republic and gave this new republic the

name Colombia or *the Colombian Confederation* (December 27th, 1819). Bolívar was nominated president of the confederation by congress and the distinguished orator F. A. Zea vice-president. The latter left for Europe soon after to negotiate a loan and the recognition of independence. Special governors were also appointed for each constituent part of the confederation; namely, for New Granada General Santander, for Venezuela Dr. Roscio. The capital of the republic should in future bear the name City of Bolívar, an appellation which Angustora received then and has kept ever since.

The victory of Boyacá and the formation of the Colombian Confederation assured the final triumph of independence in the northern section of South America. Nevertheless, the Spaniards still occupied the northern towns of New Granada and Quito, and Morillo had still an army in Venezuela. The Venezuelan patriots then undertook bold operations and forced Morillo into a situation of self-defense. He, however, knew that Ferdinand VII. united a numerous army in Cadiz to fight the American revolutionists, and although they were to go to Buenos Aires, Morillo hoped that part of those troops be sent to Venezuela for his assistance. But that army, before sailing, revolted under the direction of Colonel Riego and was engaged in the liberal revolution of Spain of 1820 in which the king was obliged to recognize the liberal constitution of 1812. The news of this revolt made the Count of Cartagena lose all hopes of help. The new liberal government of Spain gave him the instruction to negotiate with the revolutionists and to declare them that they would be allowed to govern the provinces they held with the understanding that they swear allegiance to the king of Spain. Bolívar and the other patriot leaders replied that they would not enter into peace negotiations, except on the basis of the recognition of the Colombian independence. The arrogant Count of Cartagena then solicited a truce which Bolívar accepted, agreeing on an armistice of six months, whereupon Morillo desired an interview with Bolívar.

Having met in the town of Santa Ana, the two hostile leaders embraced one another and spent a few hours, conversing like two old friends. Morillo, being released from the command as he himself had petitioned, at last embarked for Spain, leaving Marshal M. Latorre in his place and carrying away a large treasure which he had taken in America.

The patriots did not respect the armistice rigorously; for they promoted recruiting and carried it on even in provinces that were still under Spanish control. The royalist leader Latorre consequently, declared the truce broken after five months. While General Bermudez took Caracas and lost the city again, Bolivar went to unite his forces with those of General Paez. On the plains of Carabobo General Latorre was in camp with 5500 valiant soldiers. To attack him the patriot army, 6000 men strong, entered the defiles of the mountain which separated the two armies. The day before the battle Latorre had detached two battalions of infantry and one squadron of cavalry to strengthen another royalist division, thus materially weakening his force on the eve of a decisive action. The rest of his army he drew up on the wide plain of Carabobo, at the foot of the passes that lead through the Cordillera.

THE BATTLE OF CARABOBO, JUNE 24TH, 1821.

Bolivar, after surprising the principal pass June 23d, occupied the heights looking down upon the plain. Next morning he detached Paez with 1500 horse, the Apure legion, and the British legion to attack the right flank of the royalists, while he with the bulk of the army remained on the heights ready to descend by the main pass. The Apure battalion was in front, led by Paez in person. Latorre, with three battalions and under cover of a heavy artillery fire, attacked this battalion as it left the pass and threw it into disorder; but the British legion, led by Colonel Ferrier, came quickly to its assistance, deployed in line, and with front rank kneeling poured in-

so heavy a fire that the advance of the royalists was checked. The Apure cavalry rallied and charged on the right flank. Ferrier, having burned all his cartridges, led on his men with the bayonet and drove the enemy before him, while the Llanero horse rode them down; the enemy's ranks were disordered by the flight of his own cavalry. One battalion stubbornly kept its formation and repulsed every charge made upon it during a retreat of twenty miles until it rejoined the rest of the routed army which took refuge in Puerto Cabello. This battle of Carabobo, won by only a part of the patriot army, secured forever the independence of Venezuela, as that of Boyacá secured the New Granadian independence. Five days after the battle Bolivar and Paez held their entrance into Caracas, and the Spanish garrison of fort Guayra was promptly forced to surrender. The independent government offered passports to all royalists who wished to leave the country.

At that time a general congress of deputies of twenty-two provinces of Venezuela and New Granada was in session at Cucuta. There the union of the two countries was ratified and the congress after lengthy deliberations endorsed the constitution of the new Colombian Confederation (August 30th, 1821). According to same a president should be elected by congress every four years, a vice-president who might substitute him, a senate, and a house of representatives. The same congress declared new-born slaves free, formulated a plan of studies for schools, recognized liberty of the press, protected the Indians, and organized the various branches of government. It also elected Bolivar first constitutional president of the confederation and *Santander* vice-president; both went to *Cucuta* to enter upon the discharge of their duties. Soon after Bogata was made capital of the Colombian Confederation.

Without resting upon his laurels and also, as it seems, without attending to the presidential duties, the liberator went again from Venezuela to New Granada to direct the campaign

which had already begun, against the royalists of the Cauca region and Quito, Vice-president Santander having already obliged the royalists to retreat from the Magadalena river. The Spanish governor of Quito, Aymerich, was thus threatened from the north as he had been from the south; for the province of Guayaquil, south of Quito, had been agitated by San Martin's invasion of Peru, had declared itself independent, appointed a governor, and sent a division of 1500 men against Quito. *Aymerich* had routed the Guayaquilians on the plain of Guachi and now, two months later, marched towards the north to attack the approaching Colombians and also routed them Febuary 2nd, 1821, near the river Juanambú. The Guayaquilians asked Bolivar for assistance and also San Martin who operated in Peru at the time. Bolivar acting more promptly sent General Sucre who embarked at Buena Ventura with a body of troops, marched to Guayaquil and took this province under the protection of the Colombian Confederation. In an encounter with Aymerich Sucre was defeated, wherefore he asked San Martin for assistance who dispatched a division from Peru under the command of Colonel Santa Cruz. Thus Sucre raised his army to 2000 men and marched rapidly against Quito. He scaled the Cotopaxi, undertook a daring nightly march through the defiles of the Pichincha where he was attacked by Aymerich May 24th, 1821. Sucre won the battle and gained a splendid victory over him. This battle of Pichincha is one of the most notable in the military history of America; for they fought over volcanic lava, in the midst of clouds, on heights only known to condors. Next day Quito capitulated and also declared for incorporation into the Colombian Confederation. Bolivar then went to Guayaquil and, after a cold interview with San Martin, succeeded in bringing those people out of their vacillation so as also to declare for incorporation into Colombia. Later we shall again refer to San Martin's and Bolivar's interview.

About the middle of the year 1821 the Spaniards still oc-

cupied Panama and Cartagena in New Granada, and Puerto Cabello and Cumaná in Venezuela. The Venezuelan general Montilla, assisted by Brion's squadron, besieged Cartagena. The news of the patriot victory of Carabobo caused the garrison of that stronghold to capitulate. A month and a half later the patriots of Panama started a revolt and this province also joined the Colombian Confederation. The city of Cumana in Venezuela surrendered to General Bermudez; but the Spaniards still held on to the important port of Puerto Cabello. There General Latorre commanded who, however, delivered the command to Brigadier-general Morales, the man of mournful celebrity. Being very active and profiting by the absence of Bolívar who then was at Guayaquil, Morales took Maracaibo, Santa Marta, and other places along the coast and seriously menaced all Venezuela. During the year 1823 the patriots had to sustain repeated combats by land and by sea; but at last they forced Morales to surrender fort Maracaibo and to retire to Cuba. Puerto Cabello in which Calzada commanded, resisted a long and laborious siege, but General Paez assaulted the fort in the night of November 7th, 1823, and took it, making Calzada and many officers and soldiers prisoners. Thus all Colombia was free and brought under the republican flag.

With the consent of congress and with a pension of 30,000 pesos Bolívar in that same year, 1823, went to direct the war in Peru, Sucre, the celebrated general, having preceded him already with a Colombian division. The victories of Junin and Ayacucho which we shall relate in the revolutionary history of Peru, were the great achievements of this campaign by which Peru and Bolivia were set free.

INDEPENDENCE OF PERU.

1821 to 1826.

The glorious South American revolution, initiated in 1810, had neither a response nor a representative in Peru. While the other Spanish American colonies fought tenaciously for their liberty and independence, from Peru came the armies and the materials to fight them. The Spanish Peruvians fought the patriots of Quito and Upper Peru, of Argentina and Chile. There was not a single man in Peru during the revolutionary period who stood on the level of those who promoted and directed the revolutionary movements in the other countries. That Peru might obtain her independence it was expedient that San Martin and O'Higgins, Bolivar and Sucre carry the revolution to the very doors of the viceroy.

Nevertheless there had been a certain discontent with the Spanish authorities within the borders of the viceroyship. It broke out in Cuzco. The news of the surrender of Montevideo to the Argentine patriots had reached the city, when Angulo, though he was a prisoner at the time, thought of revolting. He won over to himself the guards that had him in charge and one night in August, 1814, seized Governor Concha and the principal Spaniards of Cuzco. Next morning a provisional government of three members was organized, Angulo reserving for himself the military command. The principal member of the junta was chief M. G. Pumacagua who was said to be a descendant of the ancient Incas. The revolters raised troops and in three months they overpowered a number of important cities. *Pumacagua's insurrection* brought Vice-roy Abascal into trouble who since 1810 had sustained the royalist cause on the continent, fighting the revolutions in the adjacent colonies, wherefore he had no forces in reserve. Fortunately for the viceroy, however, General Pezuela had been victorious in Upper Peru and therefore was able to de-

tach 1200 men whom he sent against the revolutionists under General J. Ramirez who routed them and gained a series of triumphs. Pumacagua retreated to Cuzco and near this city Ramirez attacked his army again and defeated it completely March 15th, 1815. Pumacagua was by his own men delivered to the Spanish authorities and was hanged. A few days later the other insurrection leaders were also executed in Cuzco.

These successes and the victories in Upper Peru which General Pezuela had gained, re-established tranquility in the viceroyship for the present. But when Abascal vaingloried in them mostly, he learned that the Court of Spain had appointed victorious Pezuela viceroy in his stead. The latter put the army of Upper Peru in charge of General J. La Serna, went to Lima, and entered upon the duties of government July 7th, 1816. Tranquility reigned in Peru still a few years; then a storm arose and a change was wrought. The viceroy disposed of great resources, however, having 23,000 soldiers, experienced leaders, and money in abundance.

SAN MARTIN IN PERU.

The powerful Chilean expedition of 8 war vessels and 16 transports, carrying 4100 soldiers, arms for 15,000 men, and provisions for six months, which had left Valparaiso under orders of Lord Cochrane and San Martin, landed without difficulties at the port of Pisco September 8th, 1820. This event produced deep impressions in Lima. Then Viceroy Pezuela, apprehensive of what might come, thought of the liberal constitution which had been promulgated in Spain after the revolution of the liberals of 1812, thinking that this measure might facilitate an understanding. He opened negotiations with San Martin in Miraflores, six miles south of Lima, which, however, resulted in no understanding; for the patriot plenipotentiaries demanded the independence of Peru as basis of any agreement.

CAPTURE OF THE ESMERALDA AND ARENALES' SUCCESSES.

San Martin dispatched General Arenales with a division of 1000 men from Pisco to revolutionize the people of the mountainous regions. Thereupon he himself left Pisco with his expedition and sailed to port Ancon, 18 miles north of Lima. While Arenales pursued his mission in the interior, Lord Cochrane, commanding the Chilean navy, blockaded Callao, the port of Lima, where the magnificent Spanish frigate Esmeralda and other smaller vessels had found refuge under the impregnable forts. Taking advantage of the darkness of night the daring lord brought a few barges in readiness, manned them with 280 men, who rowed into the harbor and boarded the Esmeralda. Desperate was the fight that took place; but Cochrane at last overpowered the Spaniards, took possession of the frigate, and pulled her out of the harbor (November 6th).

San Martin, convinced of not being able to resist the numerous royalist army, if it be concentrated, again embarked his troops, landed farther north still, where he occupied Huara, 36 miles from Lima, cutting thus the communication of the southern and northern provinces. The latter did not lose time to declare themselves in favor of independence; the province of Guayaquil had already declared itself to that effect. An entire battalion of royalists went over to the patriot ranks and a little later Marshal Torre Tagle, intendente of Trujillo, put his province under San Martin's orders. Thus the whole north of Peru from Huara to Guayaquil came into the hands of the patriots (December 24th). Thirteen days later General Arenales who had been in the interior returned with his force after a quick and successful campaign, having won a victory at Nasca and having routed completely, at Pasco, Brigadier-general D. O'Reilly with 1000 men whom the viceroy had sent against him. He had also promoted an almost general

uprising in the towns of the mountain ridges and continued his march until he reached San Martin at Huara.

NEW NEGOTIATIONS.

Viceroy Pezuela had united a force of 8000 soldiers at Lima; but as he did not venture to attack the patriot leader his officers grew tired of his vacillations and demanded that he surrender position and command to General La Serna. Pezuela yielded. The patriots made use of the delays to further their cause to such an extent that neither the new viceroy was able to undertake any effective movement against them.— In these circumstances M. Abreu who had been commissioned by the Spanish government to negotiate peace with the insurgents, arrived in Peru. San Martin succeeded in gaining Abreu's friendship and Viceroy La Serna made use of this to renew negotiations and to ask for another interview near Lima. San Martin proposed as condition of peace, that the independence of Peru be recognized, that two commissioners be sent to Spain who should petition a prince to occupy the throne of Peru, and that the country be governed by a regency in the mean time. These proposals were accepted by La Serna, but rejected by his officers. So the war continued.

DECLARATION OF PERU'S INDEPENDENCE.

Peru's coast being blockaded by the Chilean navy and communications with the interior provinces cut off by Arenales' division, want was felt in Lima. As under these circumstances La Serna was not able to maintain himself and his army in the capital, having already 1000 sick soldiers and no provisions, he left the sick behind and 200 soldiers in the fort of Callao and departed with the rest of his troops for the mountains. — Six days later San Martin entered Lima without ostentations and called an open meeting to be attended by the most noteworthy citizens. This gathering resolved to declare the independence of Peru and authorized San Martin to

perform the ceremony, which he did July 28th, 1821. He would have preferred to keep the command of the army only, as he had done in Chile, and wished to confide the civil and political government to some one else; but as the revolution of the last eleven years had not produced a single superior man in Peru who might be able to manage the affairs of a republic, San Martin took the administration into his own hands, accepting the title Protector of Peru.

The first acts of his government were to declare the new born children of slaves free and to suppress the mita, the duties of forced labor, and the contributions which since the conquest had rested heavily upon the unfortunate natives. He created a national library, ordered schools to be opened, and dictated numerous police measures, pursuing fights and games persistently. San Martin founded the order of the sun to honor those who would mostly distinguish themselves through services for the cause of independence. He also made provision for an assembly of representatives and sent the call out. General J. La Mar who was commander of the fort of Callao, was soon forced to surrender, whereupon he and a few other Spanish generals offered themselves for service in the patriot army. San Martin obliged these officers, however, to give satisfactory proofs of their fidelity.

INTERVIEW OF SAN MARTIN AND BOLIVAR.

The Colombians wanted the province of Guayaquil to be incorporated into their confederation, while San Martin claimed it would strengthen the independence of Peru, if it belonged to that country. To decide this question San Martin went to Guayaquil where he had interviews with Bolivar who had arrived from the north. There the two greatest champions of the Spanish American independence met. There is pathos in this meeting if you think of their past, of the inspiration both had obtained from Miranda, of their determination to liberate their native countries and the continent, of the bat-

ties each had won, the campaigns each had successfully led, the results each had attained. They met friendly; but in their views they could not agree. Their deliberations never became known, they remain a mystery. Having had interviews for two days, they separated, cold, distrustful, and jealous of one another. San Martin returned to Peru, resolved to leave the country forever and to yield the field to his fortunate rival.

SAN MARTIN'S RETIREMENT, 1822.

At his departure for Guayaquil San Martin had put the Peruvian government in charge of Marshal Torre Tagle who should deliberate with his ministers. The election of deputies for congress had already taken place and they were assembled when he returned. The protector opened their sessions in Lima and before this body he laid the political and military command down, whereupon congress accorded him a vote of thanks and appointed him commander in chief of the Peruvian army. San Martin accepted the title, but declined to exercise the command. The same night he embarked at Ancon, full of sorrow and almost alone. On the long journey before him he came to Valparaiso, passed noiselessly through Chile, recrossed the Andes, traversed his Argentine fatherland, and pursued his course to Europe where he lived to the end of his eventful life.

LAST YEARS OF SAN MARTIN AND O'HIGGINS.

We see San Martin leave Peru for Europe and saw O'Higgins leave Chile for Peru, both voluntary exiles. United in prosperity, these two illustrious leaders remained faithful friends in misfortune, keeping up a mutual correspondence in exile and always thinking of their fatherlands. The Argentine general lived in Europe with his only daughter, leading, at least at first, a life of poverty and lonesomeness. A Spanish banker who was his friend was the first to alleviate his misery; later the Peruvian government apportioned him half the

salary of a general, but did not always pay it; Chile's government granted him full general's salary which was paid him promptly up to his death. San Martin's longing for the country of his youth grew stronger as the years rolled by. So in 1828 he returned to Buenos Aires. However, fearing his presence might complicate the internal dissensions which still disturbed his people, he did not even go ashore, but returned to Europe, not to see his native country again. José de San Martin died in France in 1850, at the age of 72 years. His remains were brought back to Argentina and rest in a cemetery of Buenos Aires.

Bernhard O'Higgins was well taken care of by the Peruvian government which gave him, out of gratitude, a landed estate which yielded sufficiently to support himself, his mother, and his sister who stayed with him during almost twenty years. O'Higgins was never married. Shortly before his death he sent San Martin a present of 3000 pesos. He died in Lima in the year 1842, at the age of 64 years. His remains also were brought home and rest in a Santiago cemetery.

BOLIVAR IN PERU.

We return to Peru. San Martin's retirement was followed by disagreements and misfortunes. Congress entrusted the executive power to a junta of three members, presided over by General La Mar. After many vacillations in respect to the war this triumvirate sent a division under General Arenales to the mountains against the royalist general Canterac and another under the command of the Argentine general R. Alvarado against the distinguished royalist J. Valdes, whose force was 3000 men strong. With 3500 soldiers Alvarado sailed from Callao southward and gained some advantages in the province of Moquegua. But the slowness of his movements gave the active Canterac time to unite his forces with those of Valdes. The two Spanish commanders then attacked the patriots and repulsed them at Torata and routed them

completely the following day at Moquegua, obliging the dispersed remnants to re-embark hastily for Lima (January 21st, 1823). This double defeat induced congress to concentrate the power of government for the purpose of giving unity and vigor to its action. The triumvirate was dissolved and by petition of the army the impetuous Riva Aguera was proclaimed president of Peru. After a series of campaigns both of patriot and royalist armies which resulted in nothing but in changes of governments and in impoverishing the country, Bolivar, the liberator of Colombia, came to Lima September 1st, 1823, and was received with grand demonstrations of enthusiasm. Having been invested by the Peruvian congress with dictatorial powers, the liberator occupied his time primarily with re-establishing governmental unity and strength. Torre Tagle had become president in the meantime and became Bolivar's tool. The liberator opened his camp in Huaraz, north of Lima, where his army increased steadily. He exacted contributions and taxes, received gifts and had silver taken from the churches to pay the salaries of the army. This was raised to the strength of 9500 men, consisted of Colombians and Peruvians, of Chilenos and Argentinos, and was commanded by such leaders as Sucre, La Mar, Cordova, Santa Cruz, Necochea, Miller, and others.

BATTLE OF JUNIN, AUGUST 6TH, 1824.

The patriot cavalry opened the campaign, preparing the way for Bolivar who by and by forced his way, in spite of great hardships, across the mountains towards the southeast and united the entire patriot forces at Mount Pasco. The royalist general Canterac striving to make his retreat secure, marched to occupy the plain of Junin. This plain lies at the southern extremity of the great lake Reyes. On the eastern bank of the lake runs a level road, on the western bank is another which leads to the town of Junin and is much rougher. The plain is

broken up by numerous hillocks and cut up by streams and marshes filled by the overflow from the lake.

August 1st Canterac had advanced with his cavalry along the eastern road to reconnoitre and learned to his surprise that Bolivar was already on the other side of the lake. He retreated rapidly and rejoined his infantry on the 5th. On the 6th at two in the afternoon he found himself face to face with the patriot army on the plain of Junin and Bolivar at once sent Necochea ahead who led 900 cavalry. The ground was so contracted by a hill on one side and a marsh on the other, that at 5 o'clock Necochea had only two squadrons of Colombian horse on the plain when he was attacked by the whole of the royalist cavalry, 1300 strong, led by Canterac himself. The Colombian lancers received the charge with great steadiness, but were driven back upon their supports which were still entangled in the defile. The royalist horse greatly disordered by their rapid advance, entered the defile with the fugitives when Necochea, pierced by seven lance wounds, was trampled under foot and made prisoner. Colonel Suarez, with the first squadron of Peruvian hussars, had drawn his men into an angle of the marsh and, letting the rout pass by, charged the pursuers in the rear. The fugitives were rallied by Miller who led them again to the charge and drove the royalists from the field. In forty-five minutes the affair was over and not a shot had been fired. The royalists lost 350 dead, 80 prisoners, and 400 saddled horses. The patriots lost 150 between killed and wounded and rescued Necochea. The fugitive royalists took shelter under the fire of their infantry which at once retreated. Such was the celebrated action of Junin which broke the prestige of the royalist arms in Peru and prepared the way for the final triumph. Canterac who was greatly disturbed by this disaster, evacuated the region and retreated so rapidly that in two days he was more than 100 miles from the scene of action. Nor did he stop until he had marched 500 miles from

Junin, losing on the way between 2000 and 3000 by desertion. Canterac, not being pursued, had fled from his own shadow.

As summer, the rainy season in the mountains, approached Bolivar returned to Lima, leaving the command of the army to General Sucre. Viceroy La Serna made strenuous preparations in the coming months, and united near Cuzco an army of nearly 10,000 soldiers to enter upon a new campaign. For he bade General Valdes come from Upper Peru, who marched about 800 miles in one month and, picking up in his march various detachments of soldiers, came to unite with Canterac near Cuzco October, 1824. The army was divided into three divisions of infantry under Canterac, Valdes, and Moret, and one of cavalry which La Serna himself commanded; they had 10 guns. To fight the royalists Sucre had only 7000 men with two guns; the other artillery he lost before the final battle began.

BATTLE AND CAPITULATION OF AYACUCHO, DECEMBER 9TH, 1824.

La Serna maneuvered to cut off Sucre from his base at Jauja, moving in a semicircle of which the patriots held the center. Sucre was thus enabled to concentrate his forces and to choose for himself the field of battle. He retreated; but November 24th at the river Pampas he found that the enemy by forced marches was there before him; the river lay between them. Three days were spent in maneuvers and then Sucre crossed the river; but December 2nd he found the heights of Matoro in his front already occupied by the royalists. Wheeling rapidly to his right he passed the gorge towards the valley of Acocos; however, his rearguard under Lara was overtaken in the pass by Valdes, of which one Colombian battalion was cut to pieces and two more were dispersed and lost a gun December 3rd. The further advance of the royalists was checked by the main body stationed on the height beyond and the two armies encamped for the night on opposite sides of the gorge.

Next day Sucre gained the valley of Acrocos and offered battle; but La Serna, anxious to cut him off his base at Jauja, marched round the left flank of the patriots and again gained their rear, cutting all the bridges and closing the defiles to prevent their retreat. The people of the valley rose in favor of the royalists. A patriot column, marching from Jauja to join Sucre, was driven back; his sick were killed in the hospitals; he had lost 600 men in the retreat and all his artillery save two guns. For the patriots it was now victory or death. Sucre drew up his army in the valley of Ayacucho, his flanks resting on the mountain ranges to the east and to the west. Cordova commanded on the right, Miller in the center, and La Mar on the left; a reserve of three battalions was commanded by Lara.

On the morning of Thursday, December 9th, 1824, the sun rose gloriously over the peaks of the eastern cordillera. Sucre galloped from end to end of his line, telling his men that on their valor that day hung the destinies of South America. At nine in the morning the royalists descended from the heights to the attack. At ten o'clock they debouched upon the plain, the left and center advancing in mass, led by the viceroy himself. The royalist right under Valdes was the first to engage and drove in the patriot skirmishers; but the infantry stood firm and a battalion of Colombians was sent to their aid. Sucre then ordered Cordova to charge with the right wing, supported by Miller's cavalry. The young gallant Colombian general who was only 25 years old, in front of his troops exclaimed: "Soldiers, arms with determination and steps of victors!" and advanced rapidly in two columns, throwing his division with great impetuosity upon the royalist center. Eight squadrons of royalist cavalry charged him, but were driven back by the Colombian horse under Silva. Monet whose division had not yet been engaged, then came to the assistance of the royalist left center, but was attacked by the reserve under Lara and driven back in confusion. Three more royalist squadrons were then thrown forward; but these were

exterminated by the Colombian lancers. Viceroy La Serna strove in vain to rally his disordered soldiery; but he was borne from his horse with six wounds and was made prisoner with more than 1000 of his men.

Meanwhile Valdes had turned the left flank of the patriots which was commanded by La Mar and which began to give way, when the Colombian battalion came to its assistance, followed by the Peruvian patriot hussars and the Argentine grenadiers led by Miller, who charged with such fury that the royalist infantry under Valdes was thrown into confusion and all their guns were captured. — It was one o'clock. Valdes in despair sat down on a rock, waiting for death. His officers forced him away, back to the heights where many of the royalist generals were already assembled with such troops as they could collect. Canterac undertook to negotiate with Sucre and to prepare for capitulation. The patriots held the victory in their hands and the viceroy's power was crushed; the war of independence was at an end and emancipation consummated. In the words of a poet:

“We passed a thousand years
In one hour at Ayacucho.”

Ayacucho is known in South America as the battle of generals. Fourteen Spanish generals with all their subordinate officers gave up their swords this day. The royalists lost more than 2000 killed and wounded and nearly 3000 prisoners; the rest took flight in horrid dispersion. The patriots had 300 killed and 600 wounded. Sucre who for this victory was called Grand Marshal of Ayacucho, offered the conquered an honorable capitulation which they accepted and signed. Vice-roy La Serna, Canterac, Valdes and the other royalist leaders promised to leave the country. Sucre, on his part, guaranteed them their lives and obliged himself to send them to Europe at the expense of the independent government.

Ayacucho crowned the joint work of San Martin and Bo-

livar. The patriot victories of Chile and those of Colombia were joined by the golden link, forged at Ayacucho by the genius of Sucre.

LAST SPANISH RESISTANCE.

The victory of Ayacucho made the resistance of the Spaniards everywhere impossible. In Upper Peru still remained a force of 4000 Spaniards under General Olanyeta who did not want to recognize the capitulation of Ayacucho. However the cities Chuquisaca, La Paz, Santa Cruz, and Cochabamba declared themselves in favor of independence. Sucre crossed the mountains and arrived at Potosi while General Arenales advanced from the south. A large part of Olanyeta's troops left him and the rest mutinied. He was fighting with the mutineers in Tusumla when Sucre arrived and, yielding to him, he surrendered. The other royalist leaders asked Sucre to be included in the capitulation of Ayacucho. Thus the Spanish dominion in Upper Peru (Bolivia) terminated (April, 1825); its independence had already been declared by General Santa Cruz August 7th, 1823.

In Callao, Lima's port, Colonel Rodil likewise did not recognize the capitulation of Ayacucho and resisted with great tenacity the attacks of a Colombian division and of the patriot naval squadron. During thirteen months of daily combats and much suffering, hunger and diseases extinguished the lives of 6000 persons, among whom was ex-President Marshal Torre Tagle. He had again embraced the cause of royalism and had with other royalists sought refuge in the Callao fort which had become a gathering place of the Peninsulars, but now became their death-trap. Rodil, losing all hope of assistance, at last surrendered the forts and capitulated January 22nd, 1826. Callao had been the last Spanish stronghold of the powerful Peruvian viceroyship which had fallen into utter ruins since the arrival of San Martin's expedition in 1820.

ORGANIZATION OF THE PERUVIAN REPUBLIC, 1825 TO 1827.

Since the independence of Peru had been made sure by the Colombian victory of Ayacucho, this country was subjected to Colombian guardianship. Bolivar who was at the head of the government, called a congress of representatives to Lima who conferred upon him the titles Liberator and Father of the country. Besides this, those representatives did not do more than to prolong the dictatorship of the Colombian leader, which showed the inability of the Peruvians to do legislative work and coincided with their incompetence to manage their own political affairs. Unfortunately Bolivar entertained the purpose of governing the liberated countries himself, wherefore he justly encountered much opposition; his pretensions were apt to cause great difficulties and disturbances.

The Liberator purposed at this time to organize the Upper Peruvian provinces so as to constitute an independent republic; but the rebellion of Paez in Venezuela and the dissensions of New Granada called him for the present to Colombia. Having appointed a provisional government and leaving a Colombian division of troops and with it the germs of revolt, Bolivar left Peru. On the second anniversary of Ayacucho a constitution was promulgated in Peru, which established a lifelong presidency and by which the minds of the people were still more irritated, who were already prejudiced against Bolivar. The very Colombian division which Bolivar had left in Lima, deposed the provisional government he had appointed. General Santa Cruz was made president of a new provisional government and another congress was called which laid the last constitution aside and put the one of 1823 into effect. Then General La Mar was elected president of Peru, the provisional government having been abolished, and Peru became a free and complete republic, free from Spanish domination not simply, but from Colombia's disgusting tutelage as well. Peru entered now, January 28th, 1827, upon the enjoy-

ment of her own sweet self-government which, however, caused many dissensions and disseminated much bitterness. The Colombian troops had to withdraw from Peruvian soil.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF BOLIVIA, 1825 TO 1827.

After the victory of Ayacucho a large section of the former presidency of Upper Peru declared itself in favor of independence — of separation not simply from Spain, but from Peru and the Argentine Republic also — each of the last two having purposed to annex it. General Sucre who was in La Paz decreed the assembling of a congress which should decide the future of the country. Months later that congress met in Chuquisaca and declared August 6th, 1825, the absolute independence of that territory. The assembly named the new republic Bolivia after the name of Bolivar and elected him its first president with the title of protector. The liberator accepted the presidency and, having returned to Lima, left for Chuquisaca, the capital of the new-born republic. During the few months he stayed in Bolivia he decreed far reaching reforms. Somewhat later, however, he had again to return to Peru and to Colombia, leaving Sucre to manage the affairs. From Lima he sent to the Bolivian assembly the constitution which he had promised and in which he established, in accordance with his political ideas, a life-long presidency. That instrument having been adopted by congress, Grand Marshal Sucre was elected president. Chuquisaca, the capital, was named after Sucre; thus Sucre became the capital of Bolivia. The new president who since Bolivar's departure had exercised the highest power, continued, with the aid of congress, the work of regenerating the country. But Bolivar's absence in Colombia and the changes brought about in the government of Peru, enabled La Mar and Santa Cruz who were disgusted with the Colombians, to undermine Sucre's position and authority. The very Colombian troops who had been retained

in Bolivia revolted, noble and generous Sucre was wounded and made prisoner in a mutiny.

The Peruvian government took advantage of this unfortunate event and ordered *General Gamarra*, a former royalist officer, to invade Bolivia at the head of 5000 men. In the treaty of Piquiza it was stipulated that the Colombians leave Bolivia, that an extraordinary congress meet which shall receive Sucre's resignation and designate the time when Gamarra shall withdraw his troops. Previously, however, the expenses of the Peruvian perfidious intervention must be paid. The desired congress having met, Sucre sent it his resignation, took leave from Bolivia forever, and went to Colombia. The same congress elected, August, 1828, General Santa Cruz president who was absent in Chile at the time and who later on played an interesting role in the events of those countries.

LAST YEARS OF BOLIVAR AND SUCRE AND THE DISSOLUTION
OF THE COLOMBIAN CONFEDERATION.

We have at various times heard the question asked in the United States whether a number of South American republics might not come together to organize into a larger republic and under one central government. Such questioners will please read this article carefully and for the purpose of finding an answer.

The northern countries which had been liberated by one and the same man, by Simon Bolivar, who had been titled their liberator by their congresses and was looked upon as father of those countries, were most favorably situated to form a confederation. And, indeed, it was the great liberator's high ideal and life work to realize such a confederation; still more, Venezuela, New Granada, and Ecuador had constituted themselves as such and were so governed for almost eleven years. But the Colombian Confederation was dissolved, as this article will show. — The La Plata countries are also so situated that they could be controlled by one central

government; but we have learned how each country fought for its own independence and self-government. Chile and Argentina are separated by the natural barriers of the majestic Andes. Finally, a coalition of Bolivia and Peru was severed by armed forces, as we shall learn.) Thus we can not discern any occasion that might lead to the unification of South American republics. Moreover, the most of the ten republics of the southern continent are not small, but extensive, as our statistical reports will show.

After Simon Bolivar's return from Bolivia and Peru to Bogata in 1826 the great liberator could announce in his message to the Colombian congress: "Colombians, it is five years since I left this capital to march at the head of the liberating army. Starting from the banks of the Cauca we reached the heights of Potosi. A million of Colombians and two sister republics, have obtained their independence under the shadow of our banners. The world of Columbus has ceased to be Spanish" (November 23rd, 1826). The glorious fame of Bolivar was at its height and produced an enthusiasm which approached to fanaticism. To his honor statues and monuments were erected; he was called father and founder of the Colombian Confederation; and his prestige was extraordinary even in foreign countries. His name symbolized for the Europeans the entire Spanish American revolution and was in the mouths of the people as that of a second Washington. And can he not be favorably compared with our American hero? Bolivar was one of the most celebrated military genii the world has known; his achievements rank with those of the greatest generals. He, however, was not the politician that was needed in his times and circumstances; his personal aim brought him into disrepute and caused his star to go down. One historian puts it thus: "As a military leader Bolivar is much greater than the hero of the North American revolution; but he can not be compared to Washington in his love to the republic or in his respect to the laws." Fighting the federal ideas which

predominated in Venezuela, he made himself suspicious to the federals. His ideas of centralization and unification became fatal, because they led to absorption and despotism. Bolivar was accused of aspiring to a crown, but falsely; this false accusation embittered his life. He stood on the constitution of Cucuta and was re-elected president of the confederation in 1826 and in 1828. — It was believed that the constitution had become the foundation of a powerful republic whose wealth, fortune and prosperity would make it a rival with the great North American republic. How groundless a belief! For if the Colombian Republic had the constitution and even had the soil to rival with the United States, it did not have the people, the people of Anglo-Saxon and Teutonic blood who have produced our prosperity, wealth, and fortune.

Very soon, however, the flattering adulations were heard to be ridiculed and the star of the liberator was seen to decline. Civil war broke out and resulted in the dismemberment of the Colombian Confederation and in the formation of the three republics: New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador (1829 to 1831). As long as the battles of independence were fought the confederation had existence; it was the work of Bolivar and his fame held it together. But when the independence was consummated, feelings of separation, of dissolution arose and rapidly developed into desires and volitions. Caracas and about all Venezuela declared that only danger and the glory of battles had united the peoples and that there was no other tie that kept them together.

The year 1829 brought a war of Colombia and Peru. The main cause was the old question: "Who shall possess the province of Guayaquil." The battle of Tarqui was fought February 26th, in which the Colombians who were commanded by gallant Marshal Sucre, were victorious, the Peruvians leaving 2000 including the prisoners on the field. Towards the close of that year, however, the confederation approached dangerous grounds; for the idea of separation had spread far and struck

its roots deep. Some wanted the dissolution to take place without bloodshed, while others demanded it under all circumstances. At last Paez who now was Venezuela's supreme director, went so far as to threaten Colombia and Bolivar with war. The congress of Bogata named a commission which should study the situation and formulate articles that might effect an understanding with Venezuela; however the principle: "The confederation is one and indivisible," should be maintained. Marshal Sucre and Dr. Estevez were commissioned to take the articles of peace to Venezuela. A few days later it was learned that Paez had refused even to receive the commissioners, had demanded the separation of his country, and had closed the doors to negotiations. The position Paez had taken in Caracas, Florez took in Quito; for he, being the leader in the south, had the separation of Ecuador on his program. Bolivar who was the founder of the Colombian Confederation and who was most deeply interested in it, now appeared like the obstacles in the rising tide. For this reason in all parts of the confederation the opinion prevailed that the liberator should resign his position and executive duties. Even a new junta of Bolivar's friends agreed in the opinion that he should not be president any longer and passed a resolution to that effect. This resolution was mortifying to Bolivar; for it meant his abdication, it meant his banishment, his departure from his beloved Colombia; and he was too poor to leave. When Bolivar had entered upon his military career he had been a millionaire; but the war had swallowed up his fortune and now he could not have paid for his transit to another country. Congress then unanimously voted to pay him the pension which the law prescribed. And, when neither Colombia nor Venezuela had room for the great hero, it became Ecuador's enviable honor to offer him hospitality.

May 4th, 1830, J. Mosquera was elected president and General D. Gaycedo vice-president of the confederation, whereby Bolivar was excluded. They were good men, but not

the men who could control the situation through which the country then passed. There were many opposing factions and many men who were accustomed to a life of war and not to the occupations of peace. We consequently read of strife, of intrigues, of revolutionary attempts, but of no guiding hand, of no controlling authority. — After Marshal Sucre had returned from his fruitless mission in Venezuela he was desirous to assist in the south and left Bogata to go to Quito. Near Venta in the Berruecos mountains the Marshal of Ayacucho was waylaid and assassinated June 4th, 1830. The horrible crime had been planned; the criminals were never discovered.

The liberator who had been ill for some time waited on the coast at Santa Marta for the English frigate Shannon which should take him to England, and he grew worse while there. In the meantime he was witness of the revolts and combats of his countrymen, for several colonels raised the banner of war against the confederation. The congress of Venezuela asked for Bolivar's expulsion and September 22nd, 1830, it accepted the constitution that made that country an independent republic; Ecuador did the same thing almost at the same time. Thus we see Bolivar's great work, the Colombian Confederation, dissolved before his own demise.

From the coast Bolivar was taken to a country place to breathe pure air. Here on the quinta of San Pedro he dictated his last will which concludes thus: "My last wishes are for the happiness of my country. If my death contributes to the ceasing of factions and to the consolidation of union, I shall go calmly down into the grave." In the midst of party agitations, of preparations for war, of fights of the ambitious there was a moment when the noise subsided and the passions ceased, a moment of hush, — it was when the word went from mouth to mouth: "The liberator is dead." At one o'clock in the afternoon of December 17th, 1830, the great Bolivar breathed his last. As time rolls on the fame of Simon Bolivar increases; for he was one of America's greatest sons.

REVOLUTION AND INDEPENDENCE OF BRAZIL.

1807 to 1831.

THE FRENCH INVADE PORTUGAL.

The majestic Portuguese colony of Brazil, at the beginning of the last century, was in a similar manner induced by European complications to revolt, as the Spanish colonies had been. In 1807 Sir John, son of Mary of Braganza, governed as regent in Portugal during his mother's insanity who was queen. Drawn into an alliance with England that country was threatened with war by the French; for when Napoleon resolved to blockade Europe against England, Sir John refused to break Portugal's relation with her ally. Therefore, Napoleon sent a considerable army under the command of Marshal Junot to occupy Portugal. This is the army which made that detour to Madrid and brought Spain into trouble. While the French entered Portugal without difficulty, the court of Lisbon fled to Brazil, leaving their country without government and resources and delivering it into the hands of the invading army. The royal family, the council of state, the ministers and principal lords of Portugal with their servants and treasures, 13,000 persons in all, set sail for America in fourteen war and many merchant vessels November 29th, 1807.

THE PORTUGUESE COURT IN BRAZIL.

After two months of navigation the royal expedition landed at Bahia, Brazil, and soon after Regent John continued his journey to Rio de Janeiro where he was proclaimed sovereign of Brazil March 7th, 1808. He at once began to promote useful reforms which gave vigorous impulse to the progress of the Brazilian colony—her ports were opened to the commerce of England and of other friendly nations; libraries, museums, academies, and other educational institutions were founded; a royal press was established on which the first periodicals of

Brazil were printed; immigration was encouraged and a bank established which was, however, monopolized by the crown. Brazil could then, in fact, consider herself an independent state, as the country was not governed by a foreign power.

With the efficient assistance of the English who forced the French out of Portugal and entered victoriously into Spain to clear that country, too, of the invaders, the Portuguese again established their home government. However, the regent seemed to prefer to stay in Brazil and wished to raise that colony to "the dignity, pre-eminence, and rank of a kingdom." The death of insane Queen Mary which occurred months later did not produce any change in the management of public affairs, the regent continuing to govern, now as king with the name of John VI. We have learned how King John, in 1816, sent General Lecor to Uruguay and how the war that was then waged became the cause of Brazil's war with the Argentine Republic nine years later.

REVOLUTION IN PERNAMBUCO, 1817.

In spite of King John's good government and of the easy victories that were won in Uruguay a revolution broke out in the north of Brazil. The luxuries of the court and the favors that were conceded to the Portuguese lords, irritated the Brazilian creoles. They had learned to know the institutions of free nations through their relations with England and the United States, and the examples of the Spanish colonies which at that time were in a deadly struggle to attain republican forms of government, stimulated them and matured the spirit of revolt in Brazil.

In Pernambuco a secret society had been organized for the purpose of promoting the establishment of a republican government and was directed by D. J. Martins, a successful merchant who had formerly lived a long time in England. The governor of that province gave order to arrest several suspects, one of whom, J. B. Lima, who was captain of the artil-

lery, instead of giving himself up as prisoner, killed his commander in the presence of the troops and urged these to declare themselves in open rebellion against the king's government. The revolution that had already been prepared broke out in the city. The governor was forced to surrender and was sent to Rio de Janeiro, while the revolutionists organized a provisional republican government in Pernambuco whose head became Martins himself. The movement spread to the northern provinces Parahibo and Rio Grande which also gave themselves provisional governments; but it did not strike roots in the south.

The governor of Bahia, count of Arcos, a former viceroy and afterwards minister of King John, sent a squadron and an army of 5000 men against Pernambuco. Though the patriots had made but slight preparations for the defense, and were soon discouraged, yet Martins marched with a force against the royalists. The republican army was easily defeated by General Mello de la Cerda and abandoned artillery and baggage. Martins was captured, some revolutionary leaders fled, and the royalists occupied Pernambuco May 20th, 1817. The court punished the patriots that fell into their hands severely; many were put into prison, while Martins and twelve companions were executed. The revolutionary sentiments, however, were not exterminated.

THE KING'S RETURN TO PORTUGAL, 1821.

After the expulsion of the French, Portugal was submitted to a despotic government and was delivered into the hands of her English protectors. The Portuguese were not satisfied with the stay of the king in Brazil and they saw with displeasure the colony becoming Portugal's main possession. Thus it came to pass that the liberal revolution of Spain in the beginning of 1820 found prepared conditions in Portugal and that it spread. The people organized a provisional junta of government which was to call an assembly of representatives

who should frame a constitution and limit the royal despotism. — The report of these occurrences was received with enthusiasm in Brazil and caused anew the former rivalry between Brazilians and Portuguese. In the provinces of Bahia and Para the people organized provisional governing juntas of a constitutional regime. In Rio de Janeiro the Portuguese garrison gathered in the public plaza and demanded that the king promise upon oath to observe the constitution which had been formulated by the assembly of Portugal. King John VI. consented to what they demanded February 21st, 1821.

The joy of the Brazilians was, however, not of long duration. Simultaneously with the ordinance to elect in Brazil deputies to the Court of Lisbon, John VI. announced his resolution to follow the request of the Court to return to Portugal. The people of Rio de Janeiro, assembled on the plaza on election day, tried to impede the departure of the king, and demanded that the forts of the harbor do not permit the royal squadron to leave. Prince Dom Pedro, however, at the head of Portuguese troops, dispersed the Brazilian voters. The city had not yet recovered from its consternation when four days after the riot John VI. sailed from Brazil's hospitable shores to far away Portugal. Dom Pedro, a youth of 23 years, intelligent and sympathetic, stayed behind to act as regent of Brazil. His parting father had told him in prophetic words: "Peter, when Brazil wants to separate from Portugal, as is likely she will do, then you must take the crown before another adventurer seizes it."

PROCLAMATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

The Courts of Lisbon had resolved to terminate the kind of relation in which Brazil stood to the homeland and therefore had demanded the return of the royal family to Portugal. In consequence of this resolution they now advanced measures which should re-establish the former colonial regime. They suppressed some institutions in Brazil which John VI.

had established and even resolved that the prince regent also return to Portugal. As the Brazilians were alarmed thereby they brought a petition before Dom Pedro, soliciting his stay in Brazil. His answer was: "As it is for the welfare and for the general felicity of the nation, tell the people that I shall stay" (January 9th, 1822).

Not comprehending the gravity of the situation the Lisbon Courts continued to tyrannize the Brazilians, all their measures having the sole tendency of increasing the irritation



DOM PEDRO I.
Emancipator and First Emperor of Brazil
† 1834

in the colony and of preparing the people for absolute independence. The regent meanwhile surrounded himself with the most resolute patriots and became the object of enthusiastic manifestations of sympathy. The municipality, the people, and the troops of Janeiro saluted him with the title Perpetual Defender of Brazil. The Portuguese courts, in turn, declared the regent's acts null, the governing juntas which recognized his authority, criminals, and his ministers and advisers, traitors. Dom Pedro was not disposed to tolerate these abuses. When he heard of them he was on the banks of the rivulet Ipiranga in the province of Sao Paulo and right there and then, September 7th, 1822, he declared Brazil absolutely

independent and free. This act of Dom Pedro is known in history as "the cry of Ipiranga." When eight days later he entered Rio de Janeiro and appeared in the theatre with a ribbon on his arm on which one could read the words: Independence or Death, the people hailed him with enthusiasm and applauded him with frenzy. On his birthday—October 12th, 1822—he was proclaimed constitutional emperor with the name Dom Pedro I. and soon after his solemn coronation took place. The true instigator of all the acts that prepared Brazil's independence was the renowned *J. B. Andrade*, minister and counselor of Dom Pedro, a man distinguished through his scientific learning, his elevated and firm character, and his political principles.

CAMPAIGN TO BAHIA AND THE NORTH, 1823.

The independence of Brazil was thus effected without any war with the mother country. Though the Portuguese Court did not make any exertion to reconquer the colony, some Portuguese troops remained still in Bahia. To occupy that city Dom Pedro I. sent a division which was commanded by Labutet, that Frenchman who had assisted the New Granadian patriots in the beginning of their revolution, and which was embarked on a fleet that was under the orders of the celebrated English sailor Thomas Cochrane, the hero of the Pacific, who after his rupture with San Martin in Peru, had come to Brazil, seeking occupation. Commanding eight poorly equipped Brazilian vessels, Cochrane sailed from Rio de Janeiro to fight the Portuguese fleet at Bahia which consisted of thirteen war vessels with 198 guns.

The new Brazilian admiral blockaded Bahia and soon hunger did its work in the city. It was rumored Cochrane had fire-ships constructed to launch against the Portuguese squadron. This rumor caused great alarm and when General Labutet's army attacked the city and took it, the Portuguese marines believed themselves doomed and resolved to leave.

Having embarked their army and loaded 70 vessels with valuable merchandises, they left, sailing towards Lisbon. Lord Cochrane pursued them, making rich spoils and returned to attack the town of Maranyon in the north, which he captured. After these successes the war continued only in a few regions in the northern provinces and soon the authority of Dom Pedro I. was recognized in all parts of Brazil. In six months Cochrane had carried out one of the most successful campaigns in America. He had taken 120 vessels, all told, from the enemy, whose cargoes had an immeasurable value, and he and Labutet had captured about half the Portuguese army.

POLITICAL ORGANIZATIONS OF THE EMPIRE, 1823-24.

Why could a monarchical government continue so long in Brazil? During the thirteen years in which John VI. had governed the colony, his good and progressive administration had made the monarchical regime pleasing to the people. To this must be added the circumstance that it had been the hereditary prince who had proclaimed the independence of the country, the prince who enjoyed high prestige for the sake of his virtues and talents. These facts strengthened the constitutional monarchy in the public opinion and removed to a distance the republican ways which the Spanish colonies had just accepted.

A congress having been called to Rio de Janeiro, Dom Pedro I. opened its sessions and soon found himself placed between two parties—the moderates who were in majority and the progressives who supported the more liberal policies of the energetic minister J. B. Andrada and of his two brothers. The emperor had to take a stand and he decided in favor of the moderates, whereupon the Andradas became more energetic, even violent and a menace to public order. Resolved to act with precision, Dom Pedro I. dissolved the congress with the aid of troops, expelled six deputies among whom were the three Andradas, and sent them to France, granting them, how-

ever, a pension. He promised to call a new constituent assembly; but instead of this assembly, the emperor, after a few days, named a council of state consisting of ten members who discussed and then accepted the project of a constitution which he himself had laid before them. The constitution having been approved by the municipalities of all the towns, the high public functionaries and the emperor promised upon solemn oath, March 25th, 1824, to stand upon it and adhere to it. This constitution was in vogue in the Brazilian monarchy two-thirds of last century.

SECOND REVOLT OF PERNAMBUCO, 1824 AND 1825.

The Portuguese government sent a diplomat to Rio de Janeiro on the mission of negotiating in favor of the union of the two crowns. Although Dom Pedro I. declared his unwillingness to receive any proposition without the previous recognition of independence, yet the commander of the Pernambuco garrison, M. Carvalho, accused him of entertaining the idea of union and of thinking of delivering Brazil again into the hands of the Portuguese. Disavowing the imperial authority Carvalho invited the northern provinces to organize themselves into a league. Such a league was actually formed and was named Confederation of the Ecuator July 24th, 1824. Forced to make use of arms again, the emperor dispatched against Pernambuco a part of the squadron with an army under Lord Cochrane's command. The Pernambucans defended themselves heroically, but were defeated and the Confederation of the Ecuator was dissolved.

For the purpose of re-establishing commercial relations with her former colony, relations by which both countries might benefit, Portugal was disposed to recognize Brazil's independence, having been urged by the British government to do so. Acting thus in plain opposition to Spain's stupid obstinacy regarding her lost possessions, King John VI. sent a plenipotentiary to Rio de Janeiro and entered with the emper-

or, his son, upon a treaty of peace in which he recognized the independence of Brazil August 29th, 1825.

LAST YEARS OF DOM PEDRO I., 1826 TO 1834.

King John's death occurred in 1826, whereupon Portugal offered her crown to Dom Pedro I. He, however, declined to accept the offer and suggested that his daughter Mary of Glory, a child of seven years, inherit the same. She became heiress and on account of her minority, ambitious and imperious Dom Michael, youngest brother of Dom Pedro, was appointed regent of Portugal.

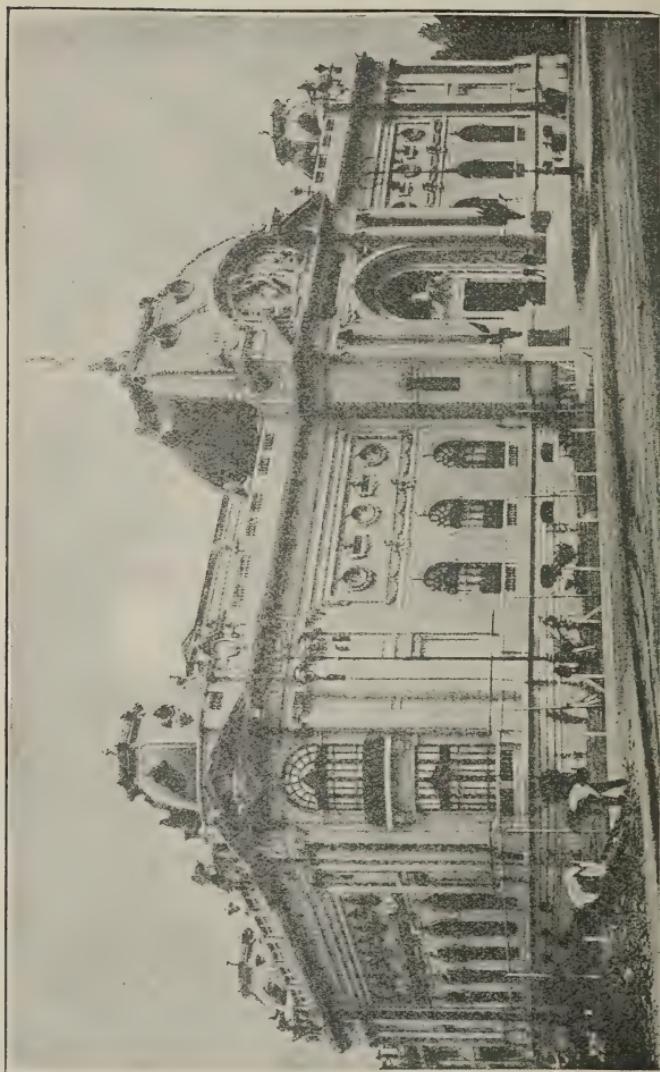
The first years of the constitutional government of Brazil had been stormy; for the unfortunate war with the Argentinos and the consequent loss of Uruguay had increased the anarchical agitations of some political factions. Tired of that fight and losing his ambition to control, the emperor finally abdicated and gave the Brazilian crown to his son who was then only five years old. Bearing the name of his father, the son was crowned Dom Pedro II. April 7th, 1831. On the same day a council of regency was appointed which should govern the country during the minority of the young emperor.

Dom Pedro I. then left for Europe to fight his brother Dom Michael, who had usurped the Portuguese throne of his daughter Mary of Glory. Assisted by the French and the English he defeated his treacherous brother and re-established his daughter on the throne of Lisbon in 1833. Dom Pedro I. died in the following year.

PERIOD VII

THE SOUTH AMERICAN REPUBLICS

1820 to 1912



NEW PALACE OF FINE ARTS, SANTIAGO DE CHILE

THE REPUBLIC OF CHILE.

1820 to 1912.

I. EIGHT YEARS OF LIBERAL ENDEAVORS.

1823 to 1831.

Integrity and Organization of the Republic.

With the battle of Maipo the war of independence had come to an end and with a strong hand O'Higgins had kept the peace. His abdication became the beginning of an agitated and confused period of endeavors to organize politically and socially. The leaders did not yet clearly know what they wanted; they learned by agitating and trying, by succeeding and failing. Ramon Freire was chosen successor to O'Higgins by the plenipotentiaries of the three principal provinces Coquimbo, Santiago, and Concepcion. After his predecessor there was in Chile not a man of more renown, not a more famous soldier than Ramon Freire. He had fought in almost all the battles of Chilean independence, always distinguishing himself through valor and gallantry. On the side of O'Higgins he had penetrated the Spanish lines when the few surviving patriots left the ruins of Rancagua. He had led a division of the army of the Andes across the mountains and was one of the victors of Maipo. Immediately afterwards he had continued a stubborn warfare in the south of the country, whereby he gained a brilliant prestige. Freire was not a politician of great sagacity for he was timid and vacillating; but he always was a good citizen, a man sound at heart, a governor just and unselfish.

Freire's Administrative Labors.

Not having made previous promises, the new director initiated a conciliatory government, dedicating himself to the organization of the country. In the first year the public library was reorganized, it was decreed to open a school in every convent, and a law was passed which made the slaves absolutely free; this law was drafted and urged on by Joseph M. Infante. Freire called a constituent congress which met in 1823 and adopted the constitution which Dr. John Eganya had formulated; it, however, proved to be entirely impracticable. For this reason Freire managed without a constitution, i. e. he conducted the administration dictatorially, to which the conservative legislative congress gave its consent. One of the endeavors of the government was to bring the navy in readiness. Under the command of Vice-admiral Blanco Encalada it was sent to Peru to assist Bolivar and the Peruvian patriots, where it blockaded the ports of the viceroy which were still in possession of the royalists.

Church Affairs.

The independence of Chile had not a more embittered enemy than the bishop of Santiago, J. S. Rodriguez, who was a royalist at heart. Already by a decree of O'Higgins he had been released of his episcopacy and expelled from Chile. After an exile of four years he had returned and was as much a royalist as ever. As he was constantly disposed to contradict the new political order he was one night seized forcibly, taken to Valparaiso, and on a government boat sent to Mexico.

To readjust the affairs of the Roman Catholic Church that had been disturbed by the revolution and to arrange ecclesiastical matters, O'Higgins had sent the patriotic clergyman, J. I. Cienfuegos, to Rome who had returned after some time in company with the apostolic vicar, Muzi, a plenipotentiary sent by the pope, his secretary, and a Roman canonist. The latter

was the priest Mastai Ferreti, who later became Pope Pius IX. That commission was received with suspicion by the managers of Chile's political relations; for they believed that it involved secret plans of political importance and had been sent at the suggestion of Ferdinand VII. to exploit the American affairs and to initiate steps towards the return of the country into Spanish submission. Vicar Muzi, therefore, could not reach an understanding with the Freire administration. Even the conservative politicians looked with distrust at Muzi and after the lapse of eight months he had to return without having accomplished anything. He, however, suppressed some feast-days, conceded the pardon of the papal bull for eating meat on the days of abstinence, and facilitated the secularization of regular religionists. The convents, having already fallen from their former efficiency into decay, were forsaken by the monks who preferred to secularize. Indeed, the lives and habits of the regular ecclesiastics had become degenerate and the government enforced regulations tending to reform. One decree which became noisy in its application, prohibited persons below twenty-five years to practice religious professions. Another decree suspended some convents, reduced friars to ordinary lives in the cloisters, and deprived them of their vast landed estates. These were sold by the state which, however, accepted the obligation to give each religionist an income for his support. Thus did the state reform the cloisters.

Party Agitations.

In the meantime political agitations had spread. As congress continuously made opposition to Freire's government, he dissolved it. The next general assembly experienced the same fate for the same reason. Then Freire undertook an expedition to the far south, leaving the government in charge of a council of three ministers whose chairman was J. M. Infante. The island Chiloe south of Valdivia was still in the hands of the Spaniards, the experienced Brigadier-general A. Quinta-

nilla maintaining there still the royal standard. To include all the southern territory into the republic, Director Freire had gone there already two years previously with a force, but this time he united 3000 men in Valdivia and embarked with them for Chiloe. The expedition landed near the city of Ancud and after a strenuous march engaged the Spaniards twice on one day, first at Pudeto and then at Bella Vista. The Chilenos were victorious in both engagements, Quintanilla capitulated, and the Chilean flag replaced the Spanish in Ancud on the same day on which Colonel Rodil surrendered Callao in Peru, January 22nd, 1826. The last Spanish holdings had fallen; South America was now entirely free.

When Director Freire returned from his successful campaign, the country was in a grave state of agitation over political and ecclesiastical questions. The liberals were divided into various factions and so were the conservatives. When Freire in consequence of these disturbances called a new congress and when before it he laid down his position and command July 8th, 1826, the discord became general. In consequence of press agitations, of popular gatherings, of mutinies of the garrisons fair Chile finally fell into anarchy. Roving bands of mountaineers kept the provinces in alarm and made life insecure; they could not be kept in check even by military forces. Ten governments succeeded one another in five years, without giving the republic a lasting and firm organization.

The politicians were at a loss as regards the form of government Chile should have. Some South American republics were imitating the United States of North America by adopting the federal system of government. According to this, if applied to Chile, each province would be a state in itself, would have its own governor, assembly, and laws, and would obey a central government only in certain matters of general interest. This system had, at a time, fervent friends — J. M. Infante, a highly esteemed gentleman, became the apostle of federation; M. Blanco Encalada, Freire's successor, embraced

those ideas; and congress proclaimed federation as the basis of Chile's government, disposing that a legislative assembly or chamber be opened in each of the eight provinces into which the republic was divided at that time. But when the proposition was presented to the nation for public acceptation it was voted down and the federal system passed into oblivion. — The governments being exceedingly unsteady in this turbulent period, Ramon Freire who had just suppressed another mutiny in Santiago, was again appointed president by congress; but he resigned his position after three months and delivered the government to Vice-president Pinto.

Presidency of Pinto, 1827 to 1829.

General Francisco A. Pinto had served the American independence in Chile, in the Argentine Republic, and in Peru, and had been Freire's minister. He had traveled in Europe and was one of the most learned gentlemen of Chile of his times. As he favored social and political reforms his government was supported by the liberals and opposed by the Roman clergy and the conservatives. These gave the liberals the nickname pipiolos, signifying libertines, poor devils; while the liberals called their opponents pelucones on account of the wigs which many of the old, rich, and proud members of that party wore. Desirous of giving the country a firm government President Pinto called a convention which framed the liberal constitution of 1828. On account of strenuous conservative opposition he resigned the presidency in July of the following year; but two months later Pinto was re-elected by popular vote as was also the liberal congress, which signified a great victory of the liberal party. Government and congress went on with their beneficent reforms; but the conservatives raised opposition and began to accuse the government of abuses and illegal actions; they conspired. President Pinto foresaw the tempest that was approaching and a month and a half after his second election he resigned, laying the governmental reins into

the hands of F. R. Vicunya, president of the senate, in the midst of general disturbances (November, 1829).

Revolution of the Conservatives, 1829.

General Prieto, who was stationed at the Araucanian frontier, revolted with his army and marched against the capital, while the conservatives of Santiago organized a provisional government junta, not recognizing the authority of acting president Vicunya. The latter resigned and went to Coquimbo, leaving the command of the lawful army with General Lastra who marched out to meet Prieto. After an indecisive engagement six miles from Santiago they came to an agreement according to which both armies should lay down their arms and recognize General Freire as their chief whom both liberals and conservatives then tried to win over. But the conservatives did not adhere to the agreement; for after a few days and without giving heed to Freire's orders, Prieto occupied Santiago with his troops. The conservatives named three of their party men to form a governing junta, who invited the provinces to send representatives to Santiago that should constitute a congress. The president of this conservative assembly, who also seemed to act as president of the republic, resigned after a month and a half and delivered the government to Vice-president J. F. Ovalle March, 1830. Ovalle made Diego Portales his prime minister, who had become the soul of the conservative reaction. The new wig government tenaciously prosecuted the pipiolos and congress declared all the acts that had been introduced by the former liberal congress, null and void. Thus we see how the conservatives had put themselves into power by deceit and force and how they turned the wheels of progress back. The maltreated liberals sought to re-establish the legal government and General Freire put himself at their disposal in a civil war that shed the blood of more than 2000 victims.

Battle of Lircay, 1830.

Freire went to Valparaiso to take the troops in boats to Constitucion and from there he marched to Talca. General Prieto marched from Santiago against him. The battle which took place on the banks of the Lircay near Talca, was unfortunate for the liberals. Freire was defeated and exiled; he went to Peru, following his predecessor, O'Higgins. The predominance of the wig party over the dispersed pipiolos was assured.

2. FORTY YEARS OF CONSERVATIVE CONTROL.

1831 to 1871.

The forty years following were filled out by the administrations of four presidents who belonged to the conservative party, each president holding the office two terms of five years each. The Roman clergy was in close alliance with the conservative party in power.

Administration of President Prieto, 1831 to 1841.

In the next election Joaquin Prieto was elected president and Diego Portales vice-president. Prieto entered upon his administration September 18th, 1831, on the twenty-first anniversary of the installation of the first national government. Also he had participated in almost all the campaigns of independence, from the invasion of Pareja in 1813 to the last battles. Under his administration the conservatives who were masters of the situation strengthened their positions by various restrictive and authoritative laws and suppressed with firmness every endeavor of the defeated liberals.

President Prieto's government paid much attention to the organization of the branches of justice and agriculture. In this last branch Minister M. Renjifo acquired merited reputation. He and many of his friends, though they were conservatives, did not entirely approve of the hard and despotic sys-

tem of the government whose soul was Diego Portales. They formed a club and advocated their moderate ideas in a paper which they published.

Constitution of 1833. The conservatives who supported the government replaced the liberal constitution of 1828 by their own of 1833, which was the work of Mariano Eganya who, as his father, John Eganya, was a distinguished jurist. According to that constitution, which with but few modifications has been in vogue in Chile until today, the legislative power resides in a congress which is composed of two houses, the senate and the house of deputies, elected by the people; the judicial power resides in immovable judges who are appointed by the executive; the latter power, the executive, is exercised by a president who is elected for five years. His power is very great, for he controls it all. By means of a strong centralization the president directs from Santiago all the wheels of administration, even those in the remotest corners of the provinces, appointing their officers who are consequently responsible to him and not to the people. The guaranties of individuals, but vaguely expressed in the constitution, may be suspended in case of military occupation or of extraordinary occasions. The government, having often obtained concessions to this effect from submissive congresses, has been able to arrest and to confine without a trial, to increase the army at its own pleasure, and to expend money according to its own judgment. In church matters the constitution establishes the union of the state and the Roman Catholic Church. This paragraph was modified later. The state is to protect the church and the church confers to the state the right of patronage.

Diego Portales acted his role in Prieto's administration. He was an intelligent, laborious, unselfish politician, but was without book education, and his firm, severe disposition developed into harshness and coarseness. To his influence and machinations is largely due the fall of the liberals and the final

conservative organization of the republic. Portales made himself the incarnation of a repulsive and despotic policy which often sacrificed liberty and justice. The moderate conservatives were silenced and Minister Renjifo had to retire. When Portales made preparations in 1836 for the re-election of Prieto he succeeded, and the latter let his all-powerful colleague have his way. Imprisonments, banishments, and death made the opponents quiet.

Peru-Bolivian Confederation, 1836.

Marshal Andrew Santa Cruz, native of La Paz, had fought in Peru first for the royal cause and afterwards for independence under San Martin and Bolivar. Having later been elected president of Bolivia to succeed Sucre, he kept anarchy in check seven years, attended to the duties of administration, and gave a powerful impulse to the progress of his country. Santa Cruz planned to organize a large and powerful state under his control, by uniting Bolivia and Peru. The military anarchy that dismembered the last named country, favored his endeavors; for Peru was already divided into two states, into North Peru and South Peru, and Generals Gamarra and Salaverri coveted President Orbegoso's position. Santa Cruz intrigued, fomenting those discords. He first reached an understanding with Gamarra and then with President Orbegoso who permitted him to invade Peru with an army. Gamarra being defeated and banished and Salaverri being defeated and shot, Santa Cruz was able to organize his great Peru-Bolivian Confederation in 1836, of which he himself was appointed the life-long president.

Ecuador and Chile believed themselves threatened by Santa Cruz's invading policy. Peru and Chile had not been in peaceful relations for some time on account of custom-house and commercial questions; but now when the confederation was established a rupture was sure to follow. M. Eganya, Chile's minister to Peru, left the country and war was de-

clared against the confederation. Tyrant Rosas of Buenos Aires declared himself in Chile's favor.

In bringing the first expedition on foot Diego Portales was assassinated by revolting soldiers, and the expedition which was commanded by General Blanco Encalada, was not successful (1837). The failure of the first expedition produced profound disgust in Chile and preparations for a vaster expedition were begun to destroy the threatening confederation. One year after the first attempt General Manuel Bulnes headed an expeditionary army of 6000 men and disembarked near Lima. Having been victorious at Guia the Chilean general occupied Lima and triumphed again at the bridge of Buin. In the meantime Naval Commander Robert Simpson, an English sailor and former officer of Lord Cochrane, repulsed the naval forces of the confederation off Casma. And finally the gross of Santa Cruz's army was completely defeated by the Chilenos in the battle of Yungai January 20th, 1839. This victory was sufficient to overthrow the entire power of the confederation and to dissolve it. Peru's independence was re-established and its government intrusted to General Gamarra who was Chile's friend. Santa Cruz fled to Ecuador and was later exiled to Europe where he lived quietly and performed diplomatic duties for his country.

William Wheelwright, an enterprising North American, gave powerful impulse to Chilean commerce by the introduction of steamships in 1840. With untiring effort he organized a company in England which sent the first two steamers to the Pacific, which stimulated the traffic between Valparaiso and Callao, i. e. between Chile and Peru. The route was in time extended to Panama, bringing Chile thus in direct communication with Europe and North America. In our times the numerous steamers of a Chilean company have a regular line from Valparaiso to Panama and those of European companies pursue their courses on that western coast in all directions, stimulating commerce and civilization. — *Wheelwright*, later

on, built the railroad between the port of Caldera and Copiapo, the center of a mining region; this was the first railroad built in South America. Pursuing further enterprises Wm. Wheelwright's name became famous in Chile and the Argentine Republic.

Presidency of General Bulnes, 1841 to 1851.

Manuel Bulnes who had carried the war against the Peru-Bolivian Confederation to a successful issue, was elected to succeed Prieto in the presidency. Bulnes had begun his military career as ensign in the battle of Maipo and had risen in the subsequent campaigns in which he fought for the cause of the conservatives. As his predecessor, he was an uneducated man, but was sagacious and exercised good judgement.

The new president issued an amnesty which permitted the political exiles to return home and initiated a government of conciliation. Manuel Renjifo, who had been rejected by the preceding administration, became minister of finances, Manuel Montt, minister of justice, worship, and public instruction. Minister Renjifo organized the public treasury, regulating the financial accounts. Though the national income did not amount to 3,000,000 pesos, it was sufficient for the expenses of the administration and the interest on the public debt. The former administration had recognized the interior debt and had begun to pay interest on the English loan; before that no interest had been paid for fourteen years. Since it was demanded by the English creditors, the accumulated interest was added to the capital and thus the foreign debt amounted to 8,452,700 pesos; the interior was about 4,000,000 pesos. Since then the national credit assumed firmness and was maintained on high levels by the regularity with which Chile met her obligations.

The peaceful period of President Bulnes' administration was only of short duration, political passions burst forth anew and threatened the public order. As Minister Montt was de-

terminated to keep order and was ready to employ oppression and force when agitations and uprisings took place, military occupations and persecutions became frequent.

Founding of the Magellan Colony in 1843.

In order to occupy the barren region of the southernmost extremity of Chile and the continent and to encourage navigation through the strait of Magellan, the Chilean government disposed that a colony be founded at Punta Arenas on the strait. After eight years of existence that colony became the theatre of revolts. Ferocious Cambiaso, officer of the garrison, committed there horrifying cruelties. And he whose duty it was to protect and assist passing vessels, surprised and captured two of the ships which passed through the strait. But his own companions delivered him into the hands of the authority of Ancud where he paid for his crimes on the gallows. After a period of quiet existence the colony was again disturbed in 1877. Political exiles who were condemned to live there, revolted with a part of the garrison and committed excesses; quietude, however, was speedily restored. Since that time the colony of Punta Arenas (Sandy Point) renders valuable services to navigation and to the commerce of the Pacific.

Literary Activities. Prieto's government had already paid particular attention to the national institute. Since then illustrious professors brought instruction to higher efficiency. Minister Montt made the old university of San Felipe undergo changes and thus created the University of Chile of which learned Andrew Bello was the first rector. — The appearance of the first literary periodicals in Chile at that time, fomented the study of art and science. The popular tribune, Francis Bilboa, began to stir the people by propagating unusual ideas of religious and social reforms. The French artist, Monvoisin, revealed to the Chileños the secrets of his art; while the lyric opera caused great novelty and enthusiasm in the theatres. Also some Argentine immigrants, who had found refuge in

Chile from the sanguinary tyranny of Rosas, contributed through their articles in the press to the literary movement which had started.

President Bulnes was re-elected in 1846 for another term of five years and again observed conciliatory methods. The liberals, having a majority in congress, kept up a lively agitation with the conservatives. While Minister Vial conceded them some concessions, the conservatives were alarmed and the conservative government, maintaining its position, began to employ means of violent repression. — Minister Montt continued his good work in the interest of public education. In Santiago a normal school was erected, beautiful quinta normal was opened for agricultural purposes and an office for statistics; while a naval school was called into existence in Valparaiso. — At this time the *German colonization* of the province of Valdivia was initiated. The government had farmers come from Germany who changed the uncultivated districts into richly productive farms. This colonization has accepted such large proportions that the provinces of Valdivia and Llanquihue are mainly German and has developed to such an extent that the Chilenos who live there learn the German language to get along.

California and Commerce, 1848.

The discovery of rich gold mines in California became known even in Chile. Some Chilenos who went to California in search of gold fortunately took ship-loads of wheat and flour with them which they sold to the starving miners at gold prices. This stimulated the raising of wheat in Chile; and the Chilean wheat is excellent. Mines of precious metals were also discovered near Copiapo, Chile, especially the rich mines of Chanarcillo. Chile became prosperous in those years and the people extravagant. The prosperity, however, lasted only about seven or eight years; for wheat could not be exported to California a long time and the mines of Copia-

po began to yield less. Still the government and individuals continued to expend as before, the extraordinary luxury was continued unreasonably, and the consequence was the great commercial crisis of 1861.

Manner of a Presidential Campaign, 1851.

President Bulnes' cabinet patronized Manual Montt as presidential candidate. The liberals opposed this movement and organized the Society of Equality in Santiago in which the voice of Francis Bilboa dominated. One night masked men entered the meeting hall and dispersed the liberals with clubs. Though a trial was instituted on account of this criminal violence, the perpetrators of the assault could not be discovered. The liberals redoubled their agitation and in opposition to Manuel Montt's candidacy they championed General J. M. Cruz who was a celebrated soldier of Chacabuco and Yungai. While the government suppressed the liberal agitators with firmness, these conspired. Colonel Urriola excited the battalion Valdivia in Santiago to mutiny and with it attacked the quarters of the artillery; but he was killed and his troops were dispersed. This mutiny made the government still more determinate and consequently it redoubled its measures of vigilance and repression. Soon after Manuel Montt was elected president.

Administration of President Montt, 1851 to 1861.

When on September 18th, 1851, on the national independence day, Manuel Montt was inaugurated, he received the revolution with the presidency, which broke out in various parts of the country. In Concepcion it was directed by General J. M. Cruz, the liberal candidate. To fight it congress gave ample extraordinary concessions to the government. The command of the government troops was put in charge of ex-President Bulnes who marched to suffocate the revolution of the south. Bulnes and Cruz met at Loncomilla where a stub-

born and bloody battle was fought December 8th, which resulted in favor of the conservatives. After an agreement between the two generals, Cruz and his troops laid their arms down; the rebels of the north submitted, too.

In the first term of Montt's administration which was very prosperous in regard to the mining and agricultural industries and to the commercial enterprise, great public works were undertaken. A company began the construction of the railroad between Valparaiso and Santiago, a distance of about 80 miles, through a mountainous country. But the difficulties and costs of the undertaking were so great that the road at that time was left to terminate in Quillota. During this term also the custom-houses in Valparaiso were constructed, telegraph wires were strung from Valparaiso to Santiago, and then continued to towns south of the capital. The state also expended considerable money to have more farmers come from Germany who promoted agriculture and commerce in the provinces of Valdivia and Llanquihue. To be able to assist native farmers the government opened bureaus of credit to furnish them money on mortgages. Valparaiso capitalists were authorized to establish a bank of discount and emission of bills.

When Manuel Montt entered upon his second term of office in 1856, he met much opposition. The liberals were not satisfied with the endeavors of the government in the lines of public instruction and of legislative activity. The law that abolished the custom of primogeniture, i. e. the privilege of the first-born, was the only forward step of importance that had been taken. Then the method of violently oppressing the agitators of the opposition party, made the government many enemies who accused it of despotism and branded it as violent.

Rupture of Government and Clergy, 1856 to 1857.

Though a Catholic, President Montt did not allow the rights and privileges of state to suffer. Clergy and government had lived in perfect harmony until a miserable question

arose to dissolve that harmony. The expulsion of a sacristan from the cathedral gave origin to a dispute which assumed great proportions among the clergy. Two of the priests who had been suspended by the ecclesiastical authority in this dispute, applied to the supreme court for justice. The court rendered a judgment which the archbishop did not approve and whose compliance the government demanded. The difficulty assumed such an attitude that the government resolved the banishment of inflexible archbishop Valdivieso, a measure which they, however, did not dare to execute. The archbishop left voluntarily a little later for Europe. This circumstance separated the wig-men from the government; for they were now discontent with the president whom they themselves had elected.

At that time there were citizens still in prison or in exile for political causes. Some wig-men, now in harmony with liberals, worked in favor of a law of general amnesty to which the government objected. The law was passed, though amended. This had the effects of separating the wig-men from the government completely and of inflaming the politicians. Ministers could retain their positions but for brief seasons, one resignation following the other. Liberals and wig-men laid their old animosity completely aside and made common opposition to the government party. Notwithstanding, the latter won in the following election by a large majority. As the agitation threatened to disturb the public order and the government purposed to maintain it, there were suppressions of agitators, printing establishments closed, meetings dissolved, individuals imprisoned. In 1859 it came again to disturbances in which all parts of the country were involved. In the north P. L. Gallo, a rich and noble young man defeated the government troops and took the cities of Copiapo and Serena. He with his 2000 men, however, was defeated by General John Vidaurre who attacked him with a force of 4000. On the next national independence day General Vidaurre who had be-

come intendente of Valparaiso was struck dead by a bullet in an uproar in that city.

In consequence of these disturbances a bill was presented in congress to establish civil responsibility, which was favored by the government and became law. According to it those who took part in mutinies or rebellions made themselves responsible with their persons and properties for the damages done. The consequence was that liberal leaders who were involved in the last revolution wandered about in neighboring countries in banishment, while others whose fortunes allowed it, went to Europe to wait for a change in politics.

*Administration of José Joaquin Pérez,
1861 to 1871.*

Having formerly been a consular employe and diplomat of Chile in France, in the Argentine Republic, and in the United States, later a minister in the Bulnes administration, a senator, and council of state under Montt, J. J. Pérez had in the last years lived apart from the ardent passions of politics. He was elected president by the government party without opposition and, therefore, was flattered by all the parties. From them he selected his ministers, forming a mixed cabinet. He initiated a policy of conciliation; an ample amnesty law passed which permitted the banished liberals to return home.

The construction of the railroad between Valparaiso and Santiago was again taken up. The North American, Henry Meiggs, contracted to build the line between Quillota and Santiago which he completed in two years, finishing in 1863. The capital and first port of Chile were now but five hours apart. The entire road had cost an expense of 21 mill. pesos. Mr. Meiggs later also contracted to build the Peruvian railroad between Lima and Cuzco, the highest road in the world.

Burning of the Campania, 1863.

A horrifying catastrophe threw Santiago that year into mourning and sorrow. The month of Mary which is annually celebrated from November 15th to December 15th, was carried on with great nocturnal pomp and illuminations in the old church of the Jesuits. The people had brought to the edifice adornments and lights, decorating it with lavish profusions. While the church was completely filled with women and girls, a light communicated fire to the altar and in a short while the edifice became a seething mass of flames. More than 2000 females of all conditions of life succumbed there that awful night, burned or suffocated, choked or trampled to death. Every family of the capital lamented some one lost. That catastrophe became the occasion to organize the first body of volunteer firemen in Santiago. In Valparaiso one had already been doing good work since a few years.

Spanish-Chilean Conflict, 1864 to 1865.

A Spanish squadron of three vessels came to the western coast to adjust certain pecuniary reclamations with Peru. Queen Isabel II. claimed that Spain had never recognized Peru's independence and that it had the right to claim her old viceroyship. The squadron under Admiral Pinzon occupied Peru's guano islands, Chincha, which furnished that country's principal income. The Spanish demands did not simply arouse the Peruvians, but also the Chilenos. The press thundered against Spain and her ruler; an immense crowd gathered in Santiago to protest. Minister Tocornal, considering Peru and Spain in actual hostilities, declared coal which the Spanish squadron needed for its operations a contraband of war, whereby Chile assumed an attitude which drew her into war.

Admiral Pareja arrived with more ships to replace Pinzon and steered his fleet into the harbor of Valparaiso. He demanded, above all, that Chile salute the Spanish flag with twen-

ty-one guns and allowed but four days to satisfy the demand. Such an unexpected violence had the effect that all Chilean parties laid their differences aside and united to support the government. A declaration of war to Spain was the reply to the demand.

Chile had no other war vessels than the old corvette, Esmeralda, and a few small boats which left Valparaiso at the first hours of the conflict and went to the channels of Chiloe. Pareja was blockading the various ports of Chile when J. Williams Reballedo, commander of the Esmeralda, left the southern channels. Surprising the Spanish schooner, Covaconga, in front of Papudo, he captured it and returned with it to the retreat of Chiloe. When in Valparaiso arrogant Pareja heard the cannons roar that carried off one of his vessels the proud admiral could not endure the shock and, indeed, took his own life; his corpse was buried in the waters of the Pacific.

Chile and Peru made a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance against Spain which on the part of Chile was signed by Domingo Santa Maria. The operations, however, were carried on without energy; in several months nothing happened. As the resultless war caused Spain heavy expenses in maintaining her squadron which was suffering for want of supplies, the Spanish government resolved to relinquish its demands. It, however, maliciously ordered that before leaving the western coast, her squadron should bombard the ports of Valparaiso and Callao. Though the foreign diplomats made endeavors to prevent that wanton act of hostility, yet one morning in March, 1865, the North American, German, English, and other admirals were asked to leave the bay of Valparaiso which was as yet defenseless and at a short distance they viewed the criminal spectacle. For four hours the Spanish bombs fell on the ware- and custom-houses and other public and also private buildings, causing a conflagration that destroyed most valuable merchandises, and a part of the principal city ward. — Five years after⁴ this occurrence a treaty was

signed in Washington in consequence of the good offices of the United States government. According to this treaty the hostilities could not be renewed between the belligerents, unless notification had been given two years in advance. Chile and Spain, however, somewhat later adjusted a treaty by which peace and former friendship were re-established.

President Perez was re-elected in 1866. His administration paid much attention to secondary instruction. Lyceums, giving academic instruction, were opened in all the provincial capitals where they did not yet exist, and the instruction in them received a more positive character as did also that of the flourishing National Institute. By making the study of various branches obligatory a veritable revolution in public instruction was initiated.

Speaking of material improvements and progress, the Chilean government had become the owner of the railroad between Santiago and Valparaiso by buying the railroad stock of individuals. The government built the line towards the south, intending to reach Talcahuano and Araucania. The locomotives and coaches that run over the southern lines are from the United States. In Santiago a magnificent university building was erected on the Alameda de las Delicias. In Valparaiso fortifications were built, a very large wharf was constructed, and new custom-houses were erected.

A national agricultural exposition was opened in Santiago in 1869 which stimulated the introduction of European and North American machinery of agriculture and of more perfect samples of domestic animals, to improve the Chilean. Thus the transformation was begun which has rapidly changed the old methods and ways of agricultural life.

Araucania Opened to Colonization, 1868 to 1870.

Authorized by congress to use funds to increase the army, the government undertook the sectional occupation of Araucania progressively. The Chilean troops made there various

campaigns and pushed the natives back into the interior of their country. The river Biobio having been the frontier limit since the early colonial times, or since 250 years, now the Malleco became the southern limit and this was protected by a series of forts. All the districts vacated by the natives, were occupied by Chilenos, new towns were founded and thus the republic grew in strength and wealth. Angol, founded by Valdivia, now became in a few years an important city, being the southern terminus of Chile's main railroad and the author's field of labor.

During President Perez' administration interior peace was maintained without military occupation or extraordinary measures; liberty of assembling and of the press was fully enjoyed. The law of personal responsibility for political offenses was abolished, likewise that of imprisonment for debt. A new code of commercial laws was promulgated and a revision of the constitution of 1833 initiated. An interpretative amendment to Art. 5 of the constitution was accepted which permits Protestants and dissenters to practice their cult within particular buildings and to teach their religion in special schools.

3. FORTY YEARS OF LIBERAL LEGISLATION AND PROGRESS, 1871 to 1911.

This period is filled out with contentions on the legislative floor and struggles on the battlefields. Through fights with internal enemies and battles with outside foes the republic gained more liberty and strength. Chile rose to a higher plain of national life.

Administration of President Errazuriz, 1871 to 1876.

Frederic Errazuriz who had written an apology of the liberal constitution of 1828, belonged to the old liberal party which fought Montt's administration, and he had been soul and body in the last cabinet of President Perez. Elected to

the presidency by the fusion of conservatives and moderate liberals, the new president selected his cabinet from these parties. Soon, however, the controlling influence of the conservatives made itself felt and that principally in the line of public instruction. Grave changes in the courses of study of the National Institute, of the provincial lyceums, and of public schools in general, caused the efficiency of these institutions to go back. This induced many liberals to withhold their support from the government.

Political-Religious Agitation, 1874.

Church matters contributed to the complication of politics. The people were drawn into an agitation over a noisy question of cemeteries. The liberals wanted them to be free for individuals of all beliefs, while the conservatives and clergy wanted them to be kept for Catholics exclusively. One law that was enacted withdrew the charter which had given the clergy special privileges. In virtue of same the priests who might be accused of civil or criminal offenses are to be tried not by ecclesiastical judges as formerly, but by civil or common judges and without privileges. Did this highly important reform cause great excitement among the clergy and make them to contradict, the project of a new code of penal laws irritated them still more. This contained bills which prescribed punishment for clergymen or preachers who might incite to disobedience of the laws and to rebellion against the state authorities. The bishops, headed by the archbishop of Santiago, fulminated sentences of excommunication against all members of congress and of the government who would contribute to give legal force to those bills. In spite of this, they were made into law though with amendments. We see that the liberals had to fight their way through and that they then were turned out of the church. Here is the reason why so many prominent Chilenos are not church people; the number of these increases remarkably among the ranks of the liberals to

whom the young men largely belong. — In matters of public instruction the government changed to the better by improving the courses of study and by returning to the former efficiency of the profession. The law was enacted that the teaching of the Catholic religion in state schools was not obligatory upon the children of dissenters. Other questions also occupied the minds of the lawmakers, though they were at that time not yet disposed of; such as, the absolute freedom of the cults, lay cemeteries, civil registry and matrimony, separation of church and state.

The legislation on those ecclesiastical questions, had the effect that the old wig conservatives separated from the liberals and from President Errazuriz. In this manner terminated the fusion of those two parties in 1874 which had begun in 1858. — Though the clergy always supported the conservatives, without having in the past fully entered into the political battles, from now on, however, the bishops and priests with large numbers of religionists intervened directly in the electoral fights and communicated to politics the impassioned character of religious zeal. This gave the start to the organization of the clerical party which was called ultramontane or Roman, as in Europe, on account of its blind adhesion to the pope.

The exploitation of the rich mine Caracoles in the desert of Atacama, the trade which Chile carried on with the saltpetre of the Peruvian territory of Tarapaca, which in large part was gained by Chilean capital, and the contract of a new fiscal loan, gave activity to business and made the first years of Errazuriz' administration look prosperous. Great public works were finished and others commenced. In Santiago the sumptuous congressional palace and the spacious international edifice of arts and industry were finished. The laying of the transatlantic cable from Europe via Rio de Janeiro to Buenos Aires, established, by means of the transandine telegraph line from Buenos Aires to Santiago direct communication between Chile and Europe. — The previous administration had increased the

Chilean navy by having the two wooden corvettes, O'Higgins and Chacabuco, constructed and now the war vessels, Magellanes, Admiral Lord Cochrane, and Blanco Encalada, were added; all were built in England and the last two are iron-clads.

The national debt which had doubled in the preceding administration, now increased to such enormous proportions that it reached a total of 60,000,000 pesos; the interest absorbed a high percentage of the annual public revenue. Notwithstanding the stringent financial situation the government favored a law that remembered all the employes of the republic with a recompense equal to twenty-five per cent above their regular salaries. However, soon the afflictions came,—the Caracoles mines gave out; the Peruvian government made itself master of the saltpetre deposits of Tarapaca, taking this source of income away from Chile's commerce; and a prolonged commerical and financial crisis decreased the revenue, while public expenses were on the increase.

Anibal Pinto's Administration, 1876 to 1881.



ANIBAL PINTO

At the approach of the new presidential election liberals and conservatives agreed to support a candidate who would be named in a convention properly called. About 1000 convention men agreed on Anibal Pinto of Concepcion who was elected president a little later. September 18th, 1876, he was inaugurated, wearing the tri-colored ribbon, Chile's presidential insignia. Formerly legation secretary in Europe, Pinto had been intendente of Concepcion and lately minister of war and navy under President Errazuriz. He was a member

of the liberal party which was in control during his entire term of office.

The new government received the financial distress as legacy and made earnest endeavors to repair the evil. New taxes were imposed, the increase of twenty-five per cent on the employes' salaries was recalled, and considerable economy in national expenses observed; for the standing army was reduced to 2440 men and various war vessels were dismantled. Nevertheless, the general economic crisis increased; for the rate of interest on money rose while properties and titles of credit decreased in value. The scarcity of precious metals caused such a situation that banks were unable to convert their bills; the law of inconvertibility gave the bank-notes forced circulation. While this critical situation was depressing fair Chile, alarming rumors of complications with the Argentine Republic circulated and then came the war of the Pacific with Bolivia and Peru.

Controversy about Limits with the Argentine Republic.

The little fixedness formerly given by Spain to the limits of her American colonies became, when they constituted themselves as independent republics, the causes of repeated quarrels and wars. The founding of the Chilean colony of Magellan in 1843 brought about an obstinate dispute between Chile and the Argentine Republic over the sovereignty of Patagonia and Fireland. After long and vexatious diplomatic discussions the negotiations were abruptly suspended in the middle of 1878. The Argentine squadron received orders to sail for Patagonia and the Chilean to sail for the straits. War seemed imminent at the close of the year; but happily both governments soon took up negotiations anew and came to terms. The treaty of 1881 left to Chile all the region of the strait including Fireland, and to Argentina the vast expanse of Oriental Patagonia.

Controversy about Limits with Bolivia.

In the north Bolivia had laid claims already since 1863 to a part of the desert of Atacama. Enterprising Chilenos had explored that arid region and discovered deposits of guano, excrement of sea-birds, at Mejillones on the Bolivian coast. The difficulty with Bolivia was then settled with the understanding that the revenue income from the deposits be divided equally between the contracting parties. In the two following years other Chilean explorers discovered deposits of saltpetre south of Mejillones, that was even richer than guano for fertilizing purposes. A company of Chilean capitalists obtained the concession from Bolivia to explore those deposits, brought workmen and machinery to the desert, and built a railroad from Antofagasta. This town was thus started by Chilenos on Bolivian territory and grew as a railroad terminus and also on account of the exploitation of the neighboring Caracoles mine.

The different governments which succeeded one another in Bolivia, did not deliver to Chile even one cent of what was due her from the sale of guano or from custom-house duties. After repeated negotiations a treaty was signed in 1874 which fixed parallel 24 south as the limit of the republics and stipulated the sole condition that Bolivia does not burden the Chilean industries, which were established on her territory, with new contributions.

Conflict with Bolivia, 1879.

Bolivia did neither comply with this treaty. Stimulated by Peru upon whose secret alliance she depended and thinking Chile to be without resources, the government of General Hilarión Daza, president of Bolivia, promulgated a law in 1878 which put contributions on the saltpetre which the Chilean company of Antofagasto exported. Without accepting the offer of arbitration which Chile proposed before that law

might be applied, the Bolivian government decreed that the saltpetre plant of the Chilean company be delivered to it and that it be sold at public auction.

Chile could not consent to such a stupid disregard of the treaty. The same day set for the auction 200 Chilean soldiers occupied Antofagasta and that without resistance. At the news of this occupation Bolivia declared war against Chile, expelled the Chilean residents violently from her territory, and confiscated their properties.

Secret Treaty of Alliance against Chile.

The copious riches which the guano of Peru had brought that country, had been dissipated by unscrupulous presidents. To get out of its financial trouble, the government of Peru wanted to appropriate the rich saltpetre plants of Tarapaca which were in the hands of Chilenos and which made competition to guano. Anticipating trouble with Chile, Peru had induced Bolivia to make a treaty of alliance with her against Chile which was signed February 8th, 1873, in Lima and had been kept secret ever since. Thereupon the Peruvian government proceeded against the Chilean establishments of Tarapaca, causing great damage to the capitalists and to the commerce of Chile.

War with Peru and Bolivia, 1879.

Peace between Chile and Bolivia being broken, Peru played the role of an impartial and friendly mediator. While preparing for war, the Peruvians sent a plenipotentiary to Chile to talk peace who affirmed that he ignored the existence of a secret alliance between Peru and Bolivia. Such an alliance, however, was in everybody's mouth and the Peruvian government at last admitted its existence. Thereupon Chile declared war against Peru also. The people of Lima applauded enthusiastically when their president, General M. J. Prado, declared that he would wage a tremendous war with

Chile. The Chilean residents of Peru were violently driven out and came to enlist in the army of their fatherland.

Chile with 2,300,000 inhabitants had reduced her army to 2440 soldiers. Peru, having a population of 3,000,000, maintained an army of 7000 men, and Bolivia with 2,000,000 people had 3000 soldiers. The troops of these two countries were in the constant fights that had agitated them, used to a life of war; while the Chilean soldiers had but gone through the campaigns of Araucania. Number and experience were in favor of the allies; but their political and military demoralisation and the lack of unity within their dispersed populations, composed largely of poor Indians, led to the belief that the final victory would be Chile's. For Chile was strong in the unity of her people, in the customs of order and labor, and in her institutions which were firmly established. On the sea Chile's force was about equal to Peru's; Bolivia had no war vessels.

Naval Fight off Iquique, May 21st, 1879.

Triumph would be secured by that party which controlled the sea. While the Peruvian squadron got ready in Callao, the Chilean went under Rear-Admiral J. Williams Rebolledo to blockade the Peruvian port of Iquique and in the following month weighed anchor to steer for Callao. There it was learned that the Peruvian Independencia and the monitor Huascar had just left for the south, having President Prado and a detachment of soldiers on board. By means of the submarine cable Prado learned in Arica that the Chilean corvette Esmeralda and the schooner Covadonga were alone in the port of Iquique, and he sent his two powerful ironclads against them.

There in the bay of Iquique occurred one of the most memorable deeds of arms which the annals of the sea relate. There the young commander of the wooden Esmeralda, Arthur Prat, a lawyer and sailor, prepared to meet the ironclad

Huascar in an unequal combat, carrying the noble resolution in his breast to give his life rather than to lower his country's flag. The Esmeralda with boilers in bad condition, having struck the bottom of the bay near the shore, set Huascar's powerful guns and the gunshots from the land battery at defiance for two hours, while its own weak guns were not able to inflict any harm on the monitor's strong plates. At last the Peruvian commander M. Grau decided to ram his adversary. At the first shock heroic Prat exclaimed: "Aboard!" and with sword in hand he jumps on the enemy's deck, followed by Sergeant Aldea. Both fell there, riddled with bullets, giving a sublime example of self-sacrifice to their countrymen. At the second shock Lieutenant I. Serrano and twelve companions jumped on board and they, too, were shot dead. Captain Uribe continued the resistance. A third shock of the monitor and a discharge of its guns, loaded with grape, destroyed the glorious Chilean corvette. The Esmeralda sank while Riquelme fired the last shot. Of the 180 who had manned the vessel only 60 remained alive and these floated on the waves. This heroic deed fired the enthusiasm of the whole Chilean navy and army.

Farther south in Iquique bay, C. A. Condell, commander of the Covadonga, steered his small and damaged schooner towards the shore, pursued by the powerful and fast Independencia. Approaching so as to ram the schooner, the Peruvian ironclad hit upon a rock in Punta Grueso. Commander Condell then returned and, discharging his guns over the Independencia, destroyed his enemy almost in plain sight of the Huascar which approached from Iquique. Four days later the Covadonga arrived gloriously at Antofagasta.

Huascar's Cruisings and Capture.

During four months the Peruvian Huascar steamed up and down the southern coast, bombarding Antofagasta and other ports, though without harming them seriously, destroy-

ing barges, and always defying the persecutions of the Chilean Blanco by swiftness. One night Huascar entered Iquique bay where the gunboat Magellan fought it and in a cunning way avoided to be rammed; the enemy fled when the Chilean Cochrane approached. As Chile's vessels did not stop those cruisings a change of commanders followed; for Captain G. Riveros was appointed to replace J. W. Rebolledo as commander of the Chilean squadron; Riveros then sailed to attack the Huascar under the batteries of Arica. The Peruvian monitor, however, was found near Mejillones and could not avoid a combat with the Cochrane. Commander Grau was shot early in the fight and those who took his place had the same fate. The Cochrane had almost disabled the Huascar when the Blanco arrived to take part in the victory. When Huascar's rudder was destroyed and its guns were made useless those of its crew who were still alive attempted to sink the vessel, but were hindered by the Chilenos who boarded the monitor and took possession of it. Damaged Huascar was taken to Valparaiso, was there repaired, and enlisted in the Chilean navy.

Operations on Land; Campaign of Tarapacá, 1879.

In the meantime Chile had assembled an army of 12,000 men in Antofagasta. These were mainly men of the old national guard, but were provided with arms and ammunition which had been brought from Europe. The Bolivian dictator, Daza, had finally united 4500 men who, however, were but poorly armed, and marched with them to Tacna in southern Peru. Via the isthmus of Panama Peru procured war materials from the United States. In the first moments of the conflict that government had sent its best troops to Tarapaca to protect the saltpetre fields, having already appropriated the Chilean plants, and then it had organized another army which marched to unite with the Bolivians at Tacna.

Chile, being master of the sea through the capture of the

Huascar, undertook to invade the Peruvian department of Tarapaca. Nineteen transport and war vessels carried 10,000 soldiers from Antofagasta to Pisagua where 1200 of the allied army in vain attempted to resist the landing. When the Chilean troops made their way into that country where there was neither water nor vegetation, one division of 6000 men under Colonel Emil Sotomayor marched to encamp in a place, called Dolores, taking possession of the railroad with all its material. The Peruvian army of Tarapaca was commanded by Buendia, an old general, and advanced northward at forced marches to unite with a Bolivian division under Daza which came southward from Tacna to assist him. The allied forces 12,000 men strong, met the 6000 Chilenos of Sotomayor's division at a hill, called San Francisco. Late in an afternoon they clashed and great confusion soon developed among the Peruvian and Bolivian troops who fell back and abandoned the field. The night and fear of pursuit changed the retreat into a veritable rout (November 19th). — On the preceding day the ironclad Blanco had captured the Peruvian Pilcomayo which made another addition to the Chilean navy.

The dispersed soldiers of the allied army, not having been eagerly pursued, united in the town of Tarapaca where they were again attacked by the Chilenos. Bloody was the fight that ensued and uncertain for a while the outcome of the battle; but the allies were defeated also here and continued their retreat through rugged paths until they reached Arica where, however, only a few more than 2000 assembled, a miserable remnant of the numerous army of Tarapaca. — The two victories gave Chile the entire department of Tarapaca which was rich in guano and saltpetre deposits. Iquique, the capital of the province and principal port for the export of saltpetre, surrendered without resistance.

Presidential Changes.

At the first notice of the defeat of San Francisco President Prado went to Lima, leaving the command of the army of Tacna to the thoughtless admiral, L. Montero who by sea was isolated from the capital by the Chilean blockade of Arica. But Prado did not stay in the capital; fearing the popular irritation in Lima, he embarked unexpectedly at Callao, leaving the word behind that he was going to the United States to secure war vessels and material to continue the war. When the President's flight became known, a bloody mutiny broke out in Lima, the result of which was that N. Pierola, a daring leader of the populace, became dictator of Peru December 23rd. — A mutiny of the Bolivian soldiers at Tacna four days later, took the command away from President Daza and gave it to Colonel E. Camacho, while about the same time the people of La Paz declared the presidential seat vacant and appointed General N. Campero president of Bolivia.

Campaign of Tacna and Arica, 1880.

Chile, having re-enforced its army, dispatched from Pisagua and Iquique 13,000 men who disembarked north of Arica, whereupon the Chilean squadron extended the blockade of the Peruvian ports to Callao. While one division under Baquedano occupied Moquegua and sealed the almost inexpugnable heights of Los Angeles the gross of the Chilean army advanced laboriously towards Tacna across an arid desert country without water and vegetation and united with General Baquedano's force. The new Bolivian president, Campero, arrived at Tacna from La Paz with a re-enforcement, making the allied army 11,000 men strong, who occupied the heights adjacent to the city, which are called camp of alliance from this occurrence. General Baquedano attacked them with a little more than 7000 men. After a stubborn fight the Chilenos took the entrenched positions of the enemy, throwing the allies into utter disorder, and then defeated them completely. The Chilean army lost there

more than 2000 men, but the allies over 2800 dead and wounded and 2500 prisoners (May 26th).

When after this crushing defeat Campero and Montero fled with the remnants of their armies, the first towards Bolivia and the Peruvian general to Arequipa, a Chilean division marched to the port of Arica which was defended by the formidable fortifications of the Morro and by 2000 Peruvians under Colonel Belognesi. The fort was attacked by Colonel Peter Lagos June 7th and was taken with lively force amidst gun-shots and explosions of dynamite mines. The bloody attack and capture of Arica cost the Chilean division 372 soldiers and the Peruvians 1200 killed and wounded, numerous prisoners, and large stores of war material. Some Peruvian officers who preferred death to surrender, jumped with the horses they mounted from the Morro into the Pacific, a height of several hundred feet. The Peruvian monitor Manco Capac was sunk by its own crew.

Conferences at Arica; Operations, 1880.

The plenipotentiaries of the belligerent countries in presence of diplomatic representatives of the United States, held conferences in Arica for the purpose of making peace which was sought. Chile demanded the cession of the province of Tarapaca as war indemnity and security for the future which the allies refused to concede. Consequently the war continued.

A Chilean squadron commanded by Naval Captain P. Lynch, meanwhile navigated along the entire northern coast of Peru as far as Paita, made disembarkations at various points, and demanded military requisitions, doing all this without encountering resistance. Then want of provisions made itself felt in the Peruvian capital, because Chilean vessels blockaded the coast and closed in upon the port of Callao. Repeatedly they bombarded Callao and had combats in the bay during which the cruiser Loa and the schooner Cavadonga were sunk by Peruvian torpedoes.

*Battles of Chorillos and Miraflores,**January 13th to 15th, 1881.*

The opinion of the people and of the congress of Chile gave impulse to the action of the government. The campaign against Lima was determined and the preparations were pushed in Arica under the direction of the minister of the campaign who labored untiringly. A first division occupied Pisco without difficulty and a little later 23,000 men were united under General Baquedano at Lurin, 18 miles south of Lima. The Peruvians organized battalions in Lima and sent them successively to the front, until 16,000 men were united who formed their first line of defense which was to protect the capital and extended from Morro Solar to Monte Rico Chico in Chorillos. The Chilean army left Lurin January 12th to attack and opened the battle next morning at half past four. They directed their main attack against the enemy's center and left wing. After several hours of fighting they succeeded in turning the left wing, which, as also the center were broken up and defeated. The right Peruvian wing held its position until after noon when it, too, was routed and the Chilenos were masters of the battle field.

However, the Peruvians had a second line of battle to protect the capital, which consisted mainly of the reserves who were composed of individuals of all classes of people, from the magistrate to the humblest artisan. This army of reserves was strengthened by two battalions of the Callao garrison and by those who had escaped from the Chorillos battle. On January 15th at 2 o'clock in the afternoon the Chilenos attacked. The battle raged furiously several hours and the fallen victims were many, Peru's best sons sinking down into death; but before the sun submerged beneath the waves of the Pacific, the Peruvians were routed and their capital lay open before the victors. Three days later the Chilenos held their entrance into Lima.

Chile's Occupation of Peru.

Dictator Pierola retreated to the mountains, sent the call out for an assembly in Ayacucho, and was recruiting new troops who, however, left him and entered the service of the legal authority. All over Peru mountaineers appeared who robbed and committed depredations of all kinds, becoming a scourge to their own countrymen. Peru passed from defeat into anarchy and dissolution. The Chilean authorities dispatched expeditions in pursuit of those roving and robbing bands, and such expeditions had to support themselves too from the few resources that were left after the war.

In order to constitute a legitimate government with which Chile might negotiate peace, an assembly of noble Peruvians was called. These men belonged to the citizens' party which had promoted the war, and elected Dr. F. Garcia Calderon provisional president who selected the town of Magdalena as seat of his government. — The representative of the United States in Lima gave the Peruvians to understand that his government would intervene, to impede the annexation of Tarapaca by Chile. Cheered by this idea Garcia Calderon was led to declare that he would not entertain peace proposals on the basis of ceding territory, thus defying the just expectations of the victor. The deceitful conduct of the Magdalena government caused the Chilenos to proceed to disarm the Peruvian troops that were stationed in that town. Peru had been defeated in three campaigns and was disorganized; but the end of the warlike condition could not yet be seen at the time when a new government was inaugurated in Chile.

Presidency of Domingo Santa Maria, 1881 to 1886.

The government of President Pinto had brought the war against Bolivia and Peru to a successful issue. Pinto had maintained perfect order at home and had enjoyed the good will of all the people, of the poor and the rich, of the military

men and persons in civil life. He had governed with liberals, radicals, and nationalists. As the new presidential election drew near the majority of those parties supported Domingo Santa Maria, the liberal candidate who, being elected, was inaugurated September 18th, 1881. The new president had been affiliated with the liberal party all his life and had, through the press and on the congressional floor, made continuous opposition to President Montt's administration who had therefore obliged him to leave the country. So Santa Maria had traveled in Europe, but had returned to Chile and served in President Perez' administration as minister of state and then as plenipotentiary. As such he had in 1865 adjusted the treaty of alliance between Chile and Peru against Spain, while in Pinto's administration, during the war with Peru and Bolivia, he had successively been minister of the exterior and of the interior.

Continuation of the War with Peru, 1881 to 1883.

The new administration, in its dealings with Peru, commenced by annulling the authority of the deceitful Peruvian government of Magdalena and a little later it brought Garcia Calderon as prisoner to Chile. General L. Montero had been named vice-president by some deputies in Magdalena and, having taken charge of the government, went to Arequipa where he put himself in direct communication with the Bolivian government. Former Dictator Picrola, finding himself forsaken in Ayacucho and deprived of all authority, soon left, taking passage for Europe. A. A. Caceres who still commanded 4000 men, took upon himself the authority of Montero, trusting in the intervention of the United States.—While the Chilean authorities occupied Lima and the coast district of Peru, they regulated the police, the mail-service, the administration of justice and of revenues; but the rest of the country was in the hands of chiefs and mountaineers, who were without law and order and committed all kinds of outrages

against their own country-folks. Chilean forces marched against them and defeated many bands and also General Caceres.

In the United States a presidential campaign brought a change of administration which declared itself in favor of no intervention in the Peruvian affairs. This decision and a few other occurrences took from the Peruvians all hope of foreign help. So General M. Iglesias at last raised the standard of peace and of Peru's regeneration in Cajamarca (August, 1883). He having accepted the charge of a provisional presidency which the northern departamentos conferred upon him, a commission delegated by them met with a representative of Chile in Lima and agreed on the basis of a treaty of peace. In virtue of these preliminaries Peru ceded to Chile the departamento of Tarapaca as war indemnity; in addition to this Chile shall occupy the territory of Tacna and Arica for ten years; at the close of that period it shall be decided by popular vote to which of the two countries said territory shall belong, and the country which thus might receive it, shall re-imburse the other with the sum of 10,000,000 pesos.

Victory of Huamachuco, July 10th, 1883.

Montero in Arequipa and Caceres in the mountains accused Iglesias of being a traitor and made preparations to fight him. So the Chilenos had to fight the enemies of Iglesias in order to establish the peace party, and two Chilean divisions marched again out of Lima to enter the mountainous country. General Caceres had escaped towards the north where he had concentrated the forces of different guerilla chiefs, uniting thus 4000 men with whom he proposed to fight Iglesias in a civil war. But a third Chilean division of 1600 men left Trujillo for the north and after long, strenuous marches and countermarches the Chilenos fought and finally defeated the numerous forces of Caceres in the battle of Huamachuco.

Close of the War, 1884; Bolivia Seeks Peace.

The last victory broke the power of the guerilla forces and made the predominance of Iglesias possible in whose favor the various people of Peru who sought peace declared themselves. The treaty of peace was finally signed October 20th, 1883, whereupon Iglesias could establish his government in Lima. While this good work was progressing, the so-called vice-president, Montero, still protested against the authority of Iglesias and the peace arrangements, maintaining an army at Arequipa. A Chilean division numbering some 5000 men marched from Tacna against Arequipa and easily dispersed the approaching enemy. Demoralization entered Montero's army, it mutinied, and Montero had to flee from his own soldiers. He found refuge in Bolivia and thence left for Europe. All Peru was now submitted to President Iglesias.

Bolivia on her part had, after the battle of Tacna, closed herself up within her own borders and had looked on. As she now was threatened with a Chilean invasion, the government, to sue for peace, sent plenipotentiaries to Chile who in session with the Chilean representative, agreed on the preliminaries and signed the final treaty April 4th, 1884. Bolivia ceded the province of Antofagasta to Chile and, losing all seacoast thereby, is since 1884 an inland country. Chile thus won three provinces from her allied enemies, making her already elongated territory still longer. — We have given a detailed narrative of this important war, and shall not repeat it in the history of Peru.

Chile's Internal Affairs.

Santa Maria had been placed on the presidential chair by liberals, radicals, and nationalists and was endeavoring to keep them in harmony, but succeeded only with difficulty. The general prosperity of the country and the consequent increase of public revenue permitted the administration to continue

important public improvements and works and to start new enterprises. Laws were passed that prescribed recompenses for those who had become invalids and orphans through the war. The occupation of Araucania was completed, an expedition even reached the ruins of antique Villa Rica. Finally immense sums of money were expended for the construction of new railroads and other public works and for the promotion of instruction and colonization. — During this administration the United States government sent a commission to the South American republics for the purpose of gaining the interest of those people for North American trade and industries. Santa María in his blunt way told the commissioners that his people would make their purchases wherever they could buy best and cheapest. And they do buy excellent European goods at low prices.

Reforms in Church Matters.

The archbishop of Santiago had died and the government, according to the constitutional prerogative, nominated the prebendary, F. de Paula Tafaró, to fill the vacancy. As many priests opposed the nomination, and as the pope himself was not satisfied with it, the latter sent an apostolic delegate to Chile. The tension to which in a few months the relation between this delegate and the Chilean authorities came, brought the government to the conclusion of sending him his passport to leave the country. Before the delegate left, he declared that he disavowed the right of the ecclesiastical patronage which the constitution conferred on the government. This disavowal of the state prerogatives over the church, gave strength to the idea of separating both powers. Thus, former projects of law were brought into the congressional debates; such as, to declare the cemeteries lay and common and to establish civil registration and matrimony. The government supported those reforms and the bills passed into law, all under noisy protests of the clergy and the conservatives (Jan-

uary, 1884). The law recognizing civil marriages caused a very remarkable situation. The government refused to allow a mere clerical marriage any validity in law, and the church refused to allow a mere civil marriage any validity in religion. Women took sides mostly with the church and men mostly with the government. The consequence was that there were but few marriages; couples lived together without being legally joined and raised children. All this produced serious disorders, especially in the presidential campaign of 1886 when Balmaceda was elected; several persons lost their lives in Santiago in that campaign.

Balmaceda's Administration.

José Manuel Balmaceda entered upon the presidential duties September 18th, 1886, the day of the national anniversary. He was a sincere, enthusiastic liberal, was both clever and capable. Under his administration neither the president nor any highly-placed official was allowed to find lucrative posts for his friends. Of course this was magnificent, but to the average Chilean politician it was certainly not business. The president, too, was determined to educate the people and not fewer than 1500 schools with 100,000 pupils were established by him at a cost of 3,000,000 pesos a year. Normal schools were opened in provincial capitals where they were not yet, to educate young men and ladies to teach in the public schools. The government even furnished books and school material free of charge to the children whose parents could not purchase them.

But Chile is only nominally a republic; it was then and is now an oligarchy, governed and directed by a few very rich families. Those families had no doubt liberal sentiments of the most elevated character; but they had no desire to raise the populace to their own level. Thus Balmaceda found very soon that the influence of the powerful families was strongly opposed to him.

This was not all, but the president maintained that the foreigners carried Chile's wealth to their own countries by exploiting the nitrate works of Tarapaca and in other ways, and hinted that Chile was made for the Chilenos and not for the benefit of foreigners. This turned against him not only the English and German communities of Valparaiso and of the saltpetre fields, but also their governments.

In addition to the railroads which we have mentioned, 1369 kilometers at a cost of 35,500,000 pesos were to be laid down in the ensuing year. In spite of these and other expenses there was a surplus of 25,000,000 pesos January 1st, 1889. This was after the costly war with Peru and Bolivia and is certainly a distinct proof of Balmaceda's great administrative ability.

But when Balmaceda began to touch the endowments of the Roman Catholic Church, his fall became a certainty. Ecclesiastical fees and stipends had by him been sternly reduced; civil marriages, with the resulting loss to the priests, had been established and in consequence his ruin was only a matter of time.

Towards the end of 1890 Balmaceda had aroused against him every party in Chile, except those few liberals who were actually in office. The particular pretext chosen for attacking him did not matter. The people accused the president of illegal steps; but no one could prove his conduct to be unconstitutional, though this is what occupies most space in the histories of that unfortunate period; Balmaceda was called a dictator and the people asserted he intended to overthrow the republican government and make himself a king. But standing on the constitution of 1833 he could dissolve congress when he wished to do so, and he did dissolve it; he could use public money to maintain the army and navy without any authority from congress, and he did use it so, when congress refused to vote supplies.

War Declared by the Constitutionalists.

Congress could obviously only gain its end by war. It, therefore, met without the president's sanction, deposed Balmaceda, and appointed a junta, consisting of Captain Jorje Montt of the navy, Waldo Silva, vice-president of the senate, and Barras Luco, president of the chamber of deputies, which action, of course, was illegal.

A naval division was already in readiness "to re-establish the constitutional regime." This meant war, not politics. The navy consisting of six war vessels, at once declared for congress. Four torpedo boats which anchored in the straits of Magellan, were retained for Balmaceda's cause. One of his representatives decoyed the commanders of those boats on shore at Punta Arenas and promptly imprisoned them. The boats were, later on, of great service in the war under officers appointed by Balmaceda. The army was devoted to him. One of his first measures was to place it on war footing and to increase the pay by 50 per cent. But Balmaceda could not retain the saltpetre fields of the north that yielded large sums of money. The enemy controlled the nitrate ports and easily overwhelmed the small garrisons. However, Balmaceda exerted firm control over all the provinces south of the capital through the provincial officials who are servants of the president, being appointed by him and responsible to him. Whatever intendente did not coincide with Balmaceda's policy, was recalled and the vacancy filled by a firm adherent. Thus it came to pass that Balmaceda could exercise a regime of despotism over the people during the civil war. His opponents or enemies were persecuted; many citizens were put in prison, others fled and found refuge in caves and crevices of the Andes. The people grew quiet; silence reigned in the city of Talca where the author then lived and labored, and sullenness held fair Chile spellbound.

Organization of the Constitutional Army.

The congressional navy proceeded north and blockaded Iquique, Pisagna, and a number of smaller ports. We shall not relate the lesser movements of the navy. The great need of the constitutionalists was an army. They recruited men in the north and large numbers flocked to their standards, to fight the unconstitutional president. To acquire rifles and ammunition, they sent a vessel to the coast of California to make purchases in the United States; for they believed that the great republic of the north would furnish them for money what they needed to re-establish their constitution. But they were sadly disappointed when the vessel returned to Iquique without war materials. The vessel then was sent to Europe on the same mission and in the monarchies of Germany and Austria they purchased all they needed to equip their army; the loaded vessel was brought safely back to Iquique. In the meantime Emil Koerner of the German army had drilled the men and instructed the officers in the art of fighting an enemy and of winning victories. The constitutional army having been brought into fighting trim, the campaign against Balmaceda's forces could begin. The president, however, was well informed, when the constitutionalists disembarked August 20th, 1891, at Quinteros, a little north of Valparaiso.

Battle of the Aconcagua.

Nine thousand two hundred and eighty-four men landed under Colonel Canto and after a short march reached the river Aconcagua. Balmaceda's troops were on the southern or Valparaiso bank of the river where their lines occupied the hills for a distance of about 4 kilometers. They were about 11,000 strong, but were only armed with old rifles, whereas the constitutionalists had repeating Mannlicher rifles of the newest pattern. The latter did not halt before the formidable position of the Balmacedists; Koerner's plan of

attack was quickly made and at once acted upon. The Aconcagua was unusually deep, for a zealous adherent of the president had opened a mill-dam a distance up the river. Koerner was the first to cross the ice-cold, rushing water and marched his brigade in a semicircle so as to attack the enemy from behind. The second brigade followed him across the river and on the southern bank drove advanced detachments of the enemy over hills and through valleys back to the main force. The third constitutional brigade forded the river farther up, just in front of the enemy. Thus the Balmacedists were attacked from three sides and also by the cross-fires of the naval squadron. After four and a half hours' fighting when Koerner was rolling up the enemy's line, they fled in complete disorder. The Balmacedists lost about 1700 killed and wounded and 1500 prisoners, whilst the constitutionalists had 869 casualties.

After this crushing defeat the Balmacedists were discovered in a strongly fortified position in Vinya del Mar, a suburb of Valparaiso, where they were also protected by a fort of the harbor. The constitutionalists' attack was not successful and even endangered their position. Consequently they decided on a wide detour of some 60 miles so as to attack Valparaiso from the southeast. This decision seemed to be a most extraordinary one; for the march was through a difficult country, a country that was broken, covered with trees, full of small streams, marshes, and muddy places. Balmaceda's generals Barbosa and Alcerreca appear to have had no knowledge of this plan; at least they did nothing to impede the constitutionalists to carry out the dangerous movement.

In the evening of August 27th they had completed their march at Las Cadenas where they went into camp for the night. The leaders having assembled in a farmhouse, Koerner sketched, on a floor with charcoal, the position of the enemy and the routes to be followed by each of the divisions in the morning. The Balmacedists were upon the hills above Placilla,

were some 14,000 in number, and occupied a position 3 to 4 kilometers in length. The left flank was protected by wooded ravines and the right was placed on very high ground.

The Battle of Vinya del Mar.

The constitutionalists left their camp before five in the morning. Two divisions had advanced so far as to be under cover of the hills before the Balmacedists were aware of it. Their right was soon pressing the enemy hard and their left, swarming up the hills, also attacked. Somewhat later the congressional cavalry got on to the hills and with swords in their hands rushed down upon the Balmacedists. Horrible was the slaughter that followed and Balmaceda's troops gave way everywhere and fled in a wild panic. The two generals Barbosa and Alcerreca were killed. The loss was quite heavy on either side. The Balmacedists lost 941 killed and 2422 wounded and the constitutionalists sustained a loss of 485 dead and 1315 wounded.

Valparaiso was at once occupied by the congressional troops. During the night of August 28th to 29th soldiers and the mob seemed to have complete control of the city. Scenes of drunkenness, bloodshed, debauchery, and plunder disgraced the streets of Valparaiso. Houses were set on fire and ruffians shot at the firemen who tried to put the flames out. Next morning four to five hundred dead bodies were lying in the streets.

On August 29th, the day after the battle, Balmaceda in a short and dignified speech abdicated and appointed General Baquedano governor of Santiago. Then he took refuge in the residence of his friend Senyor Uriburu, the Argentine minister, where on September 18th, the Independence Day, he shot himself, not believing to find justice before a court of his enemies.

The congressional vanguard entered the capital and took the public buildings and offices in charge. Jorje Montt, admi-

ral of the fleet, became provisional president. The victories of the constitutionalists brought release to the people throughout the land. Balmaceda's soldiers who were stationed in the various towns, were disarmed by the citizens, the prisoners were set free, and the common people, after months of anxious silence, gave expression to their feelings in open rejoicings, in public acclamations.

On one of the days following the victory of Vinya del Mar a number of United States bluejacks received permission to go ashore. They entered some of the low places of Valparaiso and were found out by Chilenos who had a grudge against the North Americans; for it was generally believed that they had done spy-work for Balmaceda. So the Chilenos attacked and beat them, killing two and wounding quite a number. In Chile this assault was explained as a revenge, but the revenge was wrong. Diplomatic negotiations followed and the Chilean government was willing to satisfy the demands of the United States.



RAMON BARROS LUCO
President of Chile

After the revolution of 1891 the following presidents were in charge of the administration, a term lasting five years: Jorje Montt, Frederick Errazuriz, Herman Riesco, and Peter Montt. The last-named gentleman was son of Manuel Montt who was president from 1851 to 1861. Peter Montt was afflicted with a disease, and went on a journey to seek his health. While he was in the United States he visited President Taft and when he embarked on a German steamer in the harbor of New York

he was a witness to the shooting of Mayor Gaynor of that city. In Germany Peter Montt succumbed to his disease in 1910.

December 23rd, 1910, Dr. Ramon Barros Luco was inaugurated as president of the republic.

STATISTICAL REPORT.

The Republic of Chile extends over more than 38 degrees of latitude and occupies a long, narrow strip of land between the Andine mountain range and the Pacific ocean, having a coast line of 1625 miles and an average width of but 90 miles. The republic has a total area of 291,500 square miles, being larger than Texas, and a population of 3,500,000, or 12 per square mile, according to the census of 1910.

By reason of its peculiar shape access is afforded to the entire territory, and the exploitation of its mineral and other resources is both easy and profitable. As a mineral producing country Chile is best known for her rich nitrate fields, from which the excellent fertilizer known as saltpetre is procured. Copper, gold, silver, and iron are also found in the mountainous regions of the north. In the central section of the republic, stretching from the capital down south as far as Porto Montt, agriculture, viticulture, and apiculture are carried on and fisheries thrive; while in the southern extremities of the country as far south as Cape Horn extensive forests furnish various kinds of cabinet and other woods.

The Republic of Chile is divided into 23 provinces and one national territory, which are again divided into departments, districts, and municipalities. The provinces are governed by intendentes appointed by the president of the republic, while the departments are governed by governors and the districts by inspectors.

The principal cities with their populations are as follows: Santiago, 400,000; Valparaiso, 175,000; Concepcion, 55,000; Iquique, 50,000; Talca, 50,000; Punta Arenas, 20,000; Antofagasta, 20,000.

Railways there were in actual operation in Chile at the end

of 1911, 3573 miles and under construction and projected 682 miles. When all the work is finished, therefore, Chile will have a railway extension of something over 4250 miles. The Chilean government has energetically pushed the construction of the Transandine line, completed, during the year 1910, the great tunnel, and established direct service from Valparaiso and Santiago to the Argentine Republic. The great tunnel



THE TUNNEL THROUGH THE ANDES

has a length of 9906 feet and is closely preceded and followed by smaller tunnels which are respectively 105 and 388 feet long, making a total length of almost two miles. This immense tunnel, cut through an Andine range, lies at the height of 10,500 feet above the level of the sea and is, therefore, 1500 feet higher than the highest road in Europe. Chile is con-

templating a railroad whose terminals are some time to be at the north and south extremities of the country. This line once may be a section of the great Pan-American railroad.

Immigration into Chile is becoming more popular and increases from year to year. The tide has, however, turned from Germany, from which years ago great numbers of immigrants came to the southern part of the republic, so that the large proportion of the settlers today comes from Spain and Italy. Chile is taking steps to increase immigration and is offering material inducements for good workmen in the shop and the field.

A German company completed, at the close of 1909, the installation of an extensive hydraulic electric power plant on the Maipo river near Santiago at a cost of about \$3,000,000, with a force of 4000 horse-power. This plant will light the city and furnish power for such industries as may require it.

The Imports and Exports of 1911 were as follows:

COUNTRIES	IMPORTS	EXPORTS
Great Britain	\$ 40,805,052	\$ 53,258,282
Germany	32,696,171	26,199,771
United States	15,775,969	19,551,933
Argentina	7,814,775	1,198,662
Peru	7,425,402	292,678
France	6,931,714	5,865,179
Belgium	3,856,987	3,479,031
Italy	3,168,652	357,470
India	2,228,195
Spain	1,333,912	2,011,650
Brazil	624,105	156,310
Portugal	202,997	292,678
Japan	146,254	1,019,658
Netherlands	100,160	3,441,771
Foreign Merchandise exported	3,207,604
Other countries	3,291,074	1,463,525
Total	\$123,401,419	\$124,795,992

The Exports for 1911, by major groups of articles, were as follows:

Mineral Products	\$107,483,258
Animal Products	7,668,669
Vegetable Products	5,281,687
Beverages and Specie	78,918
Foreign Merchandise exported	3,207,694
Miscellaneous	164,191
Total	\$123,884,417

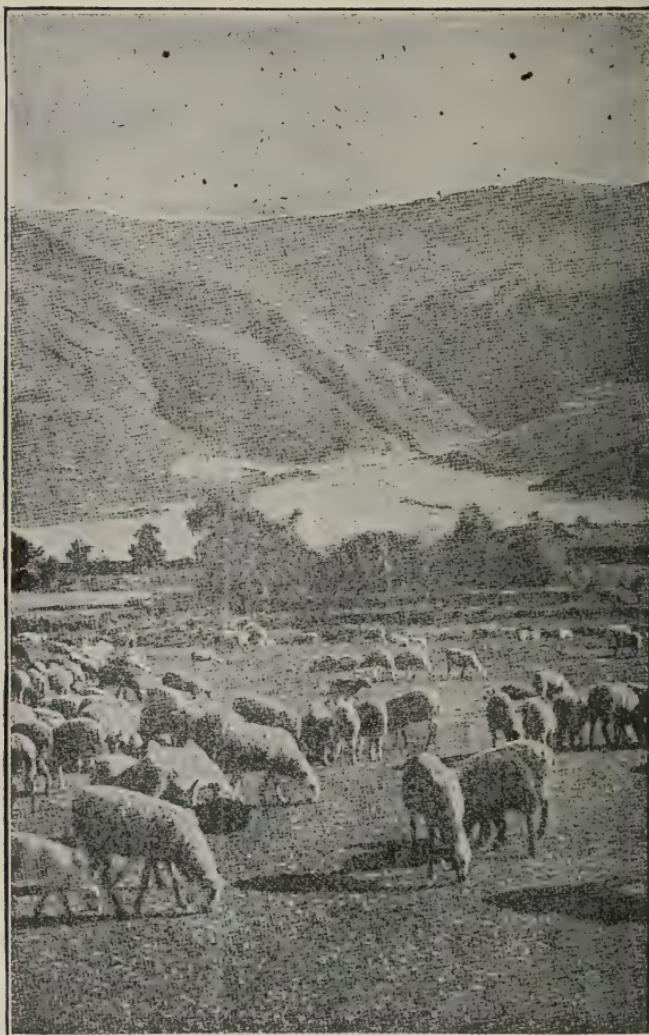
From the above table it can be seen that the mineral products constitute a very large bulk of the exports, they being, indeed, more than 6.5 times as large as the sum of all the other exports together. And among the mineral products copper ranks first. According to Mr. Charles L. Harrington of this country, Chile is the largest copper producing country in South America and it has furnished about one-third of the world's supply for more than 60 years. One of the largest copper mines, which is located southwest of Valparaiso in the coast range of the Andes, is said to have a production of 40,000,000 pounds a year. In 1911 Chile's total copper production amounted to 87,635,000 pounds.

Chile is quite awake to progress. The natural resources are being utilized; such as, mines of precious metals, saltpetre and petroleum deposits, coal veins, electric plants. Railways are extended in all directions and the harbors are made ready to admit deep going vessels. The government has offered prizes amounting to £6000 for plans and specifications of a Model Central Machine Shop and four repair shops for the State railways. The first prize will be £4000 and the second £2000. The railway budget provides 13,521,980 pesos for the mentioned shops in 1913. The plans and specifications of the commercial Port of Talcahuano have been completed. They include the construction of a channel of a maximum width of 400 meters and a depth of 10 meters, sufficient to admit vessels of deep draft.

That Chile is in a prosperous condition is also shown by the dividends some of the principal corporations and banks paid their stockholders during the second half of 1912. The Concepcion Gas Company, which has a paid-up capital of 400,000 pesos, paid a 10 per cent dividend during the six months referred to; the Chilean Tobacco Company, with a capital of 7,500,000 pesos, paid 15 per cent; the Antofagasta Electric Company, 6½ per cent; the Bank of Magellan, 10 per cent; and the Dock Company, 8 per cent.

Chile, thanks to the fairness of her climate, to the productive character of her soil, to the stability of her institutions, and to the perseverance of her people, holds a pre-eminent place among the world's countries. Mining and agriculture are the chief sources of production, and manufacturing industries are developing. She has, however, enormous quantities of the four elements indispensable to the making of a brilliant future — coal, water power, iron, and copper. There is hardly a nook in the mountains where water could not be employed as a motive power. Chile, at present, affords more opportunities than ever before for the investment of foreign capital.

There exists a daily increasing interest in the countries of North and South America to further the relations which unite them. One of the principal reasons is that the South American countries are exporters of products necessary for industrial purposes and importers of manufactured goods.



SHEEP-RAISING IN THE ANDES

THE REPUBLIC OF PERU.

1825 to 1912.

A Survey of the First Fifty Years of Peru's Republican Life.

The most periods of the republican life of Peru have been, from beginning to end, full of attempts and trials, quite the contrary to the firm and steady methods of the Chilean people after their first endeavors. Governments, parties, men, and ideas changed with surprising rapidity, because anarchy was almost always the abnormal condition; order reigned for short intervals only. Armed forces generally had more authority than the laws; might made right. The interests of certain individuals frequently prevailed over those of the people. The nation found itself constantly divided on account of governments which were victorious or conquered, standing or falling. Each new administration generally brought forth new employees and new army leaders, and cost the country prisoners, exiles, orphans, blood, and misery. The candidates offered brilliant programs of administration and gave the country flattering promises; but they were afterwards either lacking the will power to put them into practice or the incessant agitations of the discontented hindered them from keeping those promises. The governments which Peru had were either constitutional or dictatorial; they commonly passed away as with a gust of wind, hardly ever being able to keep themselves in office a full term. The revolutions were apparently justified in every case, now by a new constitution, now by public opinion, wherefore congress excused them mostly. In 60 years the republic of Peru had eight constitutions, the intervals being filled out by dictatorships when no constitution was in force. Of all the presidents of this period only two served the full term tranquilly.

Will the reader for a moment consider the utter difference

that exists between the Latin American statesmen and those of our own country. In the Spanish American republics the party in power has often made use of its opportunity to suppress and to chastise the defeated party and to prosecute its enemies. Such a sentiment has never prevailed, has even not manifested itself in our country. Here the presidential candidate of a successful party becomes the president of all the people, seeking the welfare of the members of the opposite party as well as that of his own party adherents. Again in the Latin republics a defeated candidate or a leader who feels himself called to control, often seeks satisfaction and revenge by going upon the warpath and has by fire and sword driven the people's choice from the presidential chair, so he might occupy a dictator's seat. That way of procedure does not recognize the people's verdict at the polls, it kindles hatred, generates revolutions, revolutions that throw the countries into turmoils and impoverish them. Here the majority of the people decide an election at the polls, their vote gives the final verdict; here the people rule. — Chile was spared such disturbances, but the histories of other republics chronicle them.

La Mar was president after Bolivar, from 1827 to 1829; Santa Cruz then presided over the state council. The government, following the opinions of San Martin and Bolivar, paid attention to primary instruction. But La Mar not being gifted with the political skill to lift Peru out of her shifting unsteadiness, thought of aiding the liberals of Bolivia who were desirous of getting rid of President Sucre who was a Colombian, and of Bolivar's constitution. He, therefore, sent General Gamarra with a division, who accomplished the desired result. Santa Cruz became president of Bolivia.

Gamarra, having been proclaimed president of Peru by the army in 1829 and holding the position until the following year, signed peace treaties with Colombia and Bolivia and thereby improved Peru's relation to the neighboring republics. Turning his attention to home affairs and being desirous of bring-

ing order into chaos, he continuously encountered embarrassments and was even threatened with conspiracies. The consequence was that he had to fight two uprisings.

In the next presidential campaign the government's candidate was General Bermudez and the people's candidate *General Orbegoso*. The latter received the presidency and with it the revolution. Both Gamarra and Bermudez made proclamations and declared against Orbegoso. The ensuing revolutionary movement that lasted four years we shall not relate; but to a gratifying incident of the same we must refer. After several defeats of the government forces, the contending armies met again about six miles south of Jauja and there, far from joining battle, they stretched out their arms for friendship, rushed to embrace one another, and the victors declared themselves in favor of the cause of the defeated. Other hostile troops followed the example and thus President Orbegoso became master of the situation. However, now Salaverri was not at ease and made a proclamation. He felt pain in his heart over the lamentable condition in which Peru had been thrown through the civil war of the last four years. Besides this the country was in imminent danger to lose its territorial integrity and even its independence on account of the intrigues of Santa Cruz, now president of Bolivia. For this man planned the confederation of the two countries, wanted to make himself dictator of all, had already sent his agents to Peru to work in favor of that union, and had, indeed, even gained many prominent Peruvians for the plan. So Salaverri felt himself called to redeem his country and to conjure its evils. He united quite a large army and we know already from Chile's history that he was defeated by Santa Cruz and shot. We also learned that Santa Cruz defeated Gamarra and banished him, and that he established the Peru-Bolivian Confederation which later was dissolved by the Chilenos through military force. See page 423.

After the dissolution of the confederation Gamarra who

was a friend of Chile, went to Lima and called a constituent congress which met in August, 1839. This congress empowered Gamarra to exercise the functions of a provisional president and while a constitution was being framed the campaign of a popular election went on, which resulted in favor of Gamarra. Congress declared him president for a term of six years; but he lost his life in a battle with the Bolivians in 1841. In the following years a number of generals marshaled their armies against one another, devastating the country until 1845, when General Ramon Castilla, having been victorious, was elected president.

Happy Administration of Castilla, 1845 to 1862.

Castilla had the good judgment of choosing, for the civil and military positions, men of all political affiliations and especially of the defeated party. He surrounded himself with able persons, improved the country internally, and succeeded, at the close of his legal term of six years, to leave the highest position of the republic without the least disturbance of the public peace. It was Castilla who ordered in 1847 the first steamers to be built for the Peruvian navy, and who in 1850 ordered the first railroad to be constructed between Lima and Callao. Then also the streets of the capital were paved with flagstones, the police force was better organized, and the thieves and bandits were prosecuted. During Castilla's administration, finally, the college of Nuestra Senyora obtained its highest development. This was the school where for the first time in Peru liberal republican doctrines were taught; such as, political economy, penal laws, and legislation. Simultaneously the school of Aristotle and the doctrines of Donoso Cortes were discussed and abolished.

After Castilla's first term had ended new disturbances and revolutions broke out with the installation of a new government, and the progress that had been begun was interrupted. So Castilla was returned to power in 1856 and with

him returned tranquility and peaceful activity. One of the first acts of his second term was the abolition of all slavery; the contributions of the natives had already been suspended. Difficulties with Ecuador arose in regard to limits at this time and led to hostilities. The Peruvians blockaded Guayaquil and an army of 5000 threatened Ecuador; but a treaty terminated the campaign. A commission was sent to the United States to study the system of penitentiaries and, returning, brought the plans and methods which were introduced in Lima. Gas lighting came into use at that time. A railroad was built from Lima to Chorillos and wharfs were constructed. The exploration of the Amazon river by means of steamboats which were brought from Europe, was begun. The Spanish American republics were invited to send representatives to a congress. Castilla having concluded also his second term in peace delivered the administration to congress in 1862 when General San Roman who had been elected by the nation to direct its destinies, was decorated by congress with the bicolored ribbon, Peru's presidential insignia.

San Roman's Short Activity.

From the beginning of his administration San Roman caused the country to entertain high hopes of progress. Congress, placing itself on a level with the requirements of the time, voted two million pesos for public works. But an acute sickness brought San Roman's activity to a speedy end when he had been in office hardly five months; he died April 3rd, 1863. Vice-president Pezét entered upon the administration.

During *Pezét's term* the troubles with Spain came on and continued as long as he was in office. We shall relate here but the closing acts of that conflict, and only in as much as they affected Peru. President Pezét, feeling himself unable to compete with the Spanish fleet, that had been re-enforced by Pareja's arrival, treated with him so as to satisfy Spain; but the Peruvian people revolted indignantly against the treaty. In

the south Colonel Prado made himself the leader of a revolution whose object it was to overthrow Pezét's government and to enter into an alliance with Chile against Spain. The revolution having triumphed and Pezét having lost the presidency, Colonel Prado became Peru's dictator and signed a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance with Chile against Spain. Then the Peruvian naval forces went to the channels of Chiloe to join the Chilean.

After the Spanish fleet had bombarded Valparaiso, it navigated north to raise its guns against the Peruvian batteries of Callao which, however, engaged in the fight. The powder-house of the fort exploded and killed Galvez, the active war minister of Dictator Prado; but before that second day of May, 1865, had transpired, some of the Spanish vessels were badly damaged, and then they left for the neighboring island of San Lorenzo, to repair the damages as best they could. Mendez Nunyez, the last commander of the Spanish fleet, was wounded in the fight and died. The Spaniards abandoned the Pacific without having reached any purpose, but rather having suffered losses and wrought damages outrageously.—Through these occurrences Peru was thrown into great confusion, and revolts became customary until Colonel José Balta was elected president; he was inaugurated in 1868.

Administration of President Balta, 1868 to 1872.

As the treasury was not able to meet the expenses of the republic as published in the budget, Balta's government signed the Dreyfuss contract in 1869. In virtue of same Messrs. Dreyfuss Bros. & Co. purchased 2,000,000 tons of guano, enjoying the exclusive right of exporting this fertilizer to the European markets, for which the company was to pay 600,000 soles in monthly payments. This sum the Peruvian government thought to be absolutely necessary to satisfy the public wants and to pay the interest on the foreign debt. — The apparent good result in business that followed this negotiation

aroused the government's enthusiasm for public improvements, principally for railroads. Balta's administration undertook to build ten different lines; but alas! the income from guano did not reach. To finish the railroads the government applied again to the house of Dreyfuss for more money and this time contracted two large loans, offering as security Peru's credit by promising the country's revenue. Thus resulted the loan of 1870 which amounted to 11,220,000 pounds sterling and that of 1872 for the enormous sum of 36,800,000 pounds.

Transitory Prosperity.

Though the loans instigated deep hatred and passions because they caused scandalous waste of the public funds, yet the country apparently enjoyed good times. For such was the prosperity that wherever a particular enterprise was undertaken business was done with the best results. Nor was there any lack of work for any one who wanted to work. However, a prosperity which was based on premeditated abuse of the public credit, was surely to be followed by a dreadful misery.

The public affairs of Lima were intrusted to a junta of respectable citizens whose chairman was Manuel Pardo. This junta managed with precision, intelligence, and purity. Popular instruction was admirably advanced and public health improved by making sewerage canals in many streets of the capital. They also attended to the beautifying of the city, whereby they put the precepts of hygiene into practice.

When Balta's term of administration approached its end there were no fewer than seven candidates who strove for the presidency, four military and three civil men. We shall spare our readers the names of these candidates and also the methods they employed to reach their goal; but we must relate some horrible deeds to characterize the ensuing election.

Election Days of 1872.

The election returns showed that Manuel Pardo who was president of the junta and the people's candidate, had pre-

vailed. As Pardo was not the government's candidate, President Balta saw his plan frustrated and the people feared he would not deliver the reins of government to their choice. The constant drilling of the troops and other military preparations which the government seemed to carry on, incited serious fears of a coup de etat which might come from moment to moment. The contrary, however, happened. — It was 2 o'clock in the afternoon of July 22nd when Colonel Silvestre Gutierrez at the head of a battalion went to the palace, made the president prisoner, and took him in a coach to the quarters of San Francisco. While this was going on, Marceliano Gutierrez, the colonel's brother, marched his battalion with four guns to the plaza of arms and proclaimed the revolution in these words: "Viva General Gutierrez! Death to Pardo! Death to traitor Balta!"

Four Days of Dictature.

Thus commenced the dictature of General Thomas Gutierrez and his two brothers which lasted but four days and terminated tragically. None of the three Gutierrez had been a candidate for the presidency. The first step of the dictators was to dislodge the juntas of congress from their sessions and the next to seize Manual Pardo, the people's choice for the presidency. The nation's representatives took a noble and energetic attitude by protesting against the rebellion, designating it as "a crime against the wounded fatherland" and by placing its authors, instigators, and accomplices outside the sphere of the law. Pardo having succeeded in embarking secretly in the frigate Independencia, the whole squadron put itself under his orders and declared him commander of the naval forces; he took his course to Pisco. In the mean time the army disbanded, public opinion was openly expressed against the new order of things, and the anxious people sought a way to restore the legal government.

Assassinations and Terror.

About noon July 26th Silvester Gutierrez was at the railroad station to go to Callao when he heard the words: "Viva Pardo! Away with the Gutierrez!" which came from a group of people at the station. At once he fired four shots through the station door. Some armed citizen aimed and Gutierrez fell dead, killed by the bullet.

The people, made bold through the death of Don Silvester, ran to arms, threw up barricades, preparing for a decided resistance, and shot at the soldiers of the dictators when they crossed the streets. Thomas Gutierrez, the supreme chief, seeing the soul of the revolution and his strong arm sink down in death, became disturbed in his mind and, losing his nerve, thought only of saving his own life.

Marceliano Gutierrez, exasperated by the difficulties, grew full of fury and devilish determination and a few moments later all Lima was filled with horror and indignation as the rumor circulated: "President Balta has been assassinated." His term of office had not yet expired; he was killed in prison. Now the people became infuriated. For the dictators no other course remained in such a situation than to shut themselves up in the quarters of Santa Catalina with the troops that still were faithful to them and to wait for the night when each one might save himself in the best possible way. But in the evening and night of that eventful day both Thomas and Marceliano Gutierrez became victims of the infuriated populace and their remains together with those of Silvester were thrown into a bonfire. Nobody could have prevented this horror.

The Return of Pardo.

In the evening of the following day when still the fire was smoking and the ashes of the victims could be seen, Manuel Pardo entered the capital, followed by an enthusiastic crowd. Thus the people brought the president of their choice through fire and blood to the presidential chair. August 2nd,

1872, he received the bicolored ribbon from the president of congress. His inauguration caused the people to cherish new hopes for the future; for he was an honest, pure, and economic man and infused respect for the laws. With Pardo's administration the financial crisis began that had been initiated by the preceding administration which had bargained away the guano, Peru's main source of income, and the revenues. Money went out of the country for interest and debt and none came back in return, bringing the result about that the treasuries of the banks were being drained and that they became fairly unable to continue their operations. To avoid the saddest consequences the government signed a contract with the bankers by which they were authorized to suspend the payments in coin and to increase the emission of bills. This emission could be made because of a loan to the government treasury; for the banks loaned 18 million soles to the government for which the latter gave them as security 200,000 tons of guano. To do this business a central bank was opened and thus the republic was saved a financial disaster.

President Pardo improved the various branches of government and furthered the progress of the republic by all possible means. He also made all the guaranties effective which the constitution granted the people, especially that of the press. Still the government had enemies, and conspiracies did not cease. At one occasion a pistol was discharged at Pardo on the principal plaza of Lima; but the president was providentially saved. His term of administration having terminated, he retired to private life in the midst of splendid manifestations on the part of a people that appreciated his excellent services.

Administration of President Prado, 1876 to 1879

M. Ignacio Prado was a man of pure honesty and exalted patriotism, of noble character and sympathetic heart. At his inauguration he was the object of the liveliest public ovations.

Prado's administration was confronted by three serious impediments,—first by revolutions, secondly by the financial crisis, and thirdly by the war with Chile which he wanted to wage tremendously.

Nicholas de Pierola believed himself called to direct the destinies of Peru with more right than Prado and strove to acquire the power in three revolutions; but he was defeated.

The financial crisis continued and produced bad results. In this distress the war of Chile with the Peru-Bolivian alliance came on which resulted, as the reader already knows, in a total loss to Peru. At the close of that war a Peruvian sole that had had the value of 31 pennies, was worth only 12 pennies, and *the country was bankrupt*. The Peru-Chilean war is related on pages 441 to 452; here we record only what a Peruvian writer, relating the conditions of those times, has to say about the sad fate of his fatherland. He laments thus: "The nation was desolate on account of the loss of so many and so good sons; it was worn out and a prisoner. It was deprived of its resources and was exhausted, being without guano, without saltpetre, without custom-houses. It was defenseless; for it was without an army and a navy. It was alone and there was no one who would offer a friendly hand. Nor could a glimmer of hope be espied that might indicate the way that would lead out of the lamentable condition; for as long as the enemy was master of the sea, of little effect would be the exertions on land which the loyal and valiant sons might make that were still left the Peruvian nation."

Civil War.

We concluded the narrative of the Peru-Chilean war with *Iglesias* in the presidential chair, who was opposed by General Caceres. The latter exercised supreme authority in the central and in some northern departamentos and did not recognize President Iglesias' authority. After two years of civil warfare General Caceres by means of an ably executed movement

surprised the government troops at Lima December 2nd, 1885. Next day both leaders resigned their positions by common consent and, by virtue of the agreement made, the supreme authority was entrusted to a council of ministers who arranged general elections. When the new congress met June 2nd, 1886, it proclaimed General Caceres who had been elected, president of Peru.



DON WM. BILLINGHURST
President of Peru

Since that time the republic of Peru is reported to have gradually and peacefully developed her numerous natural resources. Dr. August B. Leguia, the last incumbent of the presidency, was inaugurated on September 24th, 1908, for a term of four years. In his message to the federal congress in the latter part of 1909 he stated that the exports of the chief products of the soil; such as, sugar, cotton, india rubber, and coca were on the increase; the crop of sugar was exceptionally large. — It is a

source of congratulation that the medical congress, held in Guatemala in 1908, was invited by the Peruvian government to hold its next meeting in 1911 in Lima, and that this invitation was accepted. The exhibitors of Peru at the Quito exposition, held in 1909, were awarded three grand special prizes and 102 lesser awards. — The railroad policy of the republic was advanced during the year. The principle of these enterprises is to complete the line that will connect the northern and southern systems of the country which may ultimately form a division of the great Pan-American railway.

September, 1912, Senyor Don William Billinghurst entered upon the presidential duties of the Republic of Peru.

STATISTICAL REPORT.

The republic of Peru is about 1000 miles in length and 700 miles in width and extends over about 679,600 square miles, being equal in size to the combined areas of Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, and Nevada. It has a population of approximately 4,500,000, or 6.6 persons to the square mile.

Peru may be geographically divided into three distinct zones, going from the coast eastward, with as many varieties of climates, products, and soil. The zona seca, dry zone, extends along the coast to the foot of the Andes and in it practically nothing can be raised without irrigation. Between the three mountain ranges are the extremely fertile and healthful plateaus, or table lands, crowned by various high and snow-clad peaks. On the eastern slopes of the Andes mountains are the vast, luxuriant forests, with an innumerable variety of useful woods and medicinal plants.

Sugar-cane and the excellent Peruvian cotton are the principal agricultural products. The mines produce gold, silver, copper, iron, coal, and petroleum in large quantities. Among the forest products are rubber, the chincho bark, and coca; rubber is the second item of importance in the exports. The alpaca, a native animal of Peru, furnishes an excellent grade of wool of which large quantities are annually exported. Guano, a sea-bird excrement, hides, and Panama hats are also exported to a considerable extent.

Peru is politically divided into 19 departments, 2 coast provinces, and one constitutional province, the departments being divided into provinces and all provinces into districts. The executive authority of each department is vested in a prefect appointed by the president of the republic, while a sub-prefect governs the province and a governor the district. The principal cities with their populations are Lima, the capital, 160,000; Arequipa, 35,000; Callao, 32,000; Cuzco, 26,000.

According to the message of former President Leguia to

the national congress on July 28th, 1911, the foreign commerce of Peru for the year 1910 amounted to \$53,652,271 of which total \$22,508,021 were imports and \$31,144,250 exports.

The Peruvian statistics of imports and exports for the year 1911 are as follows:

COUNTRIES	IMPORTS	EXPORTS
United Kingdom	\$8,358,383	\$11,983,201
United States	6,069,863	10,187,998
Germany	4,598,565	2,811,486
Belgium	1,623,154	494,640
France	1,407,114	1,902,394
Australia	1,114,427
China	969,328	13,211
Hongkong	752,625
Spain	386,841	299,947
Chile	373,101	6,370,163
British India	180,431
Japan	114,496	2,242
Portugal	102,352
Cuba	77,949
Ecuador	61,992	248,093
Salvador	43,757
Brazil	43,280
Argentina	42,610
Canada	224,368
Other Countries	100,608	298,943
Total	\$26,429,875	\$36,010,802

The following shows six staple export articles of Peru and their values for the years 1909 and 1910:

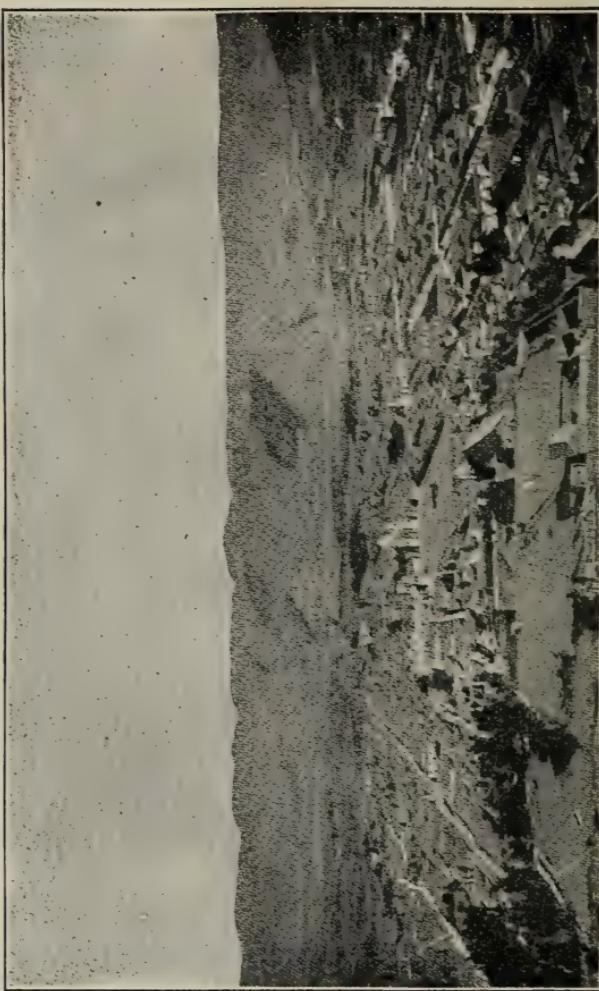
ARTICLES	1909	1910
Sugar	\$5,741,000	\$ 6,910,100
Rubber	5,688,000	6,393,000
Cotton	6,034,200	5,074,000
Wool, Alpaca	1,278,000	1,328,200
Guano	776,000	907,250
Wool, Sheep	487,150	726,150

June 16th, 1912, *an inauguration* took place which is worthy of notice; for it was the most remarkable installation of wireless telegraphy up to the present time. The occasion was celebrated simultaneously in the tower of the Cerro de San Cristobal in Lima and in Itaya near Iquitos on the Amazon, the distance being 640 miles in air-line.

The tower of San Cristobal hill is a triangular structure and is 348 feet high which with the elevation of the hill is 1368 feet above the sea. Because the distance to Iquitos lies over a highly mineralized mountain range rising up to 18,000 feet and over dense tropical forests, the sending of messages is effected with a power of 10 kilowatts of which it has never been found necessary to use more than seven. The station near Iquitos which is its duplicate in every particular save the plan of the building, also has a 10 kilowatt plant.

At the installation of the San Cristobal plant a concourse of people numbering more than 3000 had assembled, among whom were members of congress, diplomats and various officials, representatives of the press, and private citizens. Appropriate speeches were made by President Leguia, Dr. Tamayo, Mr. Karl Holmvang, chief engineer of the Telefunken Co., and Dr. E. W. Habich, the director of fomento, to whose faith and energy the enterprise owes in so great a measure its daring originality and its successful termination. Communication was held with Loreto and the reply received 12 minutes later, also with Iquitos and even with Manaos, Brazil, which is 1428 miles away.

This is the highest powered and most modern station in South America and one of the highest in the world. The cost of the two stations which has been paid in full, was \$150,000. The next move will be the erection of wireless stations with towers 262 feet high at Paita on the northern coast and at Arekipa on the southern coast of Peru to insure constant communication with all ships along the Peruvian coast, as well as independent communication with Panama and Valparaiso.



GENERAL VIEW OF LA PAZ, CAPITAL OF BOLIVIA

REPUBLIC OF BOLIVIA.

1825 to 1910.

Narrative and Statistical Report.

We have learned to know the history of Bolivia partly through her relations to Peru and partly through her difficulties with Chile. We shall, therefore, refer but briefly to some internal affairs of the republic.

To Chile Bolivia ceded her only maritime province, Antofagasta, November 24th, 1884; since then she is an inland country. March 21st, 1905, a further treaty was negotiated between the two countries, whereby Chile agreed to build a railroad from the Chilean port of Arica to the city of La Paz, now capital of Bolivia, a distance of 250 miles extending through a mountainous country. The road is now under construction and will become an important outlet for the products of the republic.

November 17th, 1903, Bolivia ceded to Brazil the territory of Acre for the consideration of \$10,000,000. This sum is now being invested by Bolivia in railways and other public works.

Dr. Fernando E. Guachalla was elected president for the term beginning August 6th, 1904, but died before he could assume the duties of office, and *José I. Montes* was designated by congress to take charge of the vacant position, pending a new election. *Dr. Eliodoro Villazón* was elected to the presidency and assumed the office August 6th, 1909. Don José Ismael Montes was elected president May 8th, 1913, and he was the second time in his political life called upon to fill the highest office in his native country, having previously served as president during the term of 1905 to 1909. He has had an



J. ISMAEL MONTES
Elected President May 8, 1913

interesting career. As a soldier he has shown his bravery in defense of his country and attained the rank of colonel for important services in the field. Sr. Montes is also a well known lawyer and has filled many important offices, among them that of Minister of War and diplomatic representative of his country abroad.

Bolivia extends over 708,195 square miles, equal to the combined areas of Washington, Oregon, California, Arizona, Utah, Nevada, and Idaho. It has a population of only 2,267,935, or

3.2 per square mile, being the most sparsely populated of any of the American republics.

Under the *constitution* which was promulgated on October 17th, 1880, the republic of Bolivia has a democratic representative form of government. Governmental powers are delegated to three distinct and co-ordinate branches of government—legislative, executive, and judicial. The president and two vice-presidents are elected for a term of four years and may not be re-elected for a term following immediately the incumbency of their respective offices.

For administrative purposes the republic is divided into eight departments which are again divided into provinces, the latter into districts, and those again into municipalities. The departments are governed by prefects, appointed by the president for a term of four years, while the provinces are governed by sub-prefects, also appointed by the president.

The largest city and commercial center of Bolivia is La Paz, with a population of 80,000. Other cities with a population of over 20,000 are Sucre, Cochabamba, Santa Cruz, Potosi, and Oruro. Bolivia has two capitals — Sucre, the original capital, where the supreme court has its seat, and

La Paz where the president resides. Congress also has for a number of years held its sessions in the latter city, and the foreign diplomats accredited to Bolivia are residing there.

The vast plateau which extends in length over 500 miles, at an average altitude of 12,000 feet above sea level, and on which are situated most of the larger cities of the republic, is the most noted topographical feature of the country and comprises 40,000 square miles.

The mountains of Bolivia abound in mineral wealth — tin, silver, copper, gold, bismuth, etc. — and these form the principal products of export. Coca, coffee, cacao, tobacco, sugar-cane, and other crops are successfully cultivated. The forests contain numerous species of valuable woods, the best known of which are the *hevea brasiliensis* and the *castilloa elastica*, from which rubber is gathered, and the well-known chinchona tree, the bark of which is used for the manufacture of quinine. As far as concerns agriculture, Bolivia is still in a backward state. Notwithstanding the fertility of the plateaus and the marvelous wealth of the eastern slopes, the country is still so sparsely settled and so inaccessible that production barely keeps pace with consumption. The great staples of Bolivia—rubber and coca—could be produced in far greater abundance than they are today; but what is chiefly needed is a larger industrial population. — It is upon her mineral wealth that the republic mainly depends, and present conditions all point to increased activity in the exploitation of these resources through the constantly increasing foreign demand for the mineral products of the country. While in by-gone ages enormous sums were obtained from Bolivian mines, at present the annual product of gold may be calculated at 17,460 troy ounces, which, at \$20 an ounce, gives a value of \$349,200.

It is estimated that in 1912 there were more than £6,000,000 of British capital invested in Bolivian railways. In addition to this, there are also large English investments in mines

and other industries in the republic. The French have probably less than £3,000,000 invested in different enterprises in Bolivia, while the German investments throughout the republic will scarcely reach £1,000,000.

The boliviano is the unit of the national currency and may be estimated at about 39 cents United States currency; 12½ bolivianos equal £1. The following table gives the totals of the foreign trade of Bolivia and shows an increase both of imports and exports for the three years given:

COMMERCE	1909	1910	1911
Imports	\$14,405,407	\$18,135,000	\$22,764,849
Exports	24,868,142	29,080,957	32,226,156

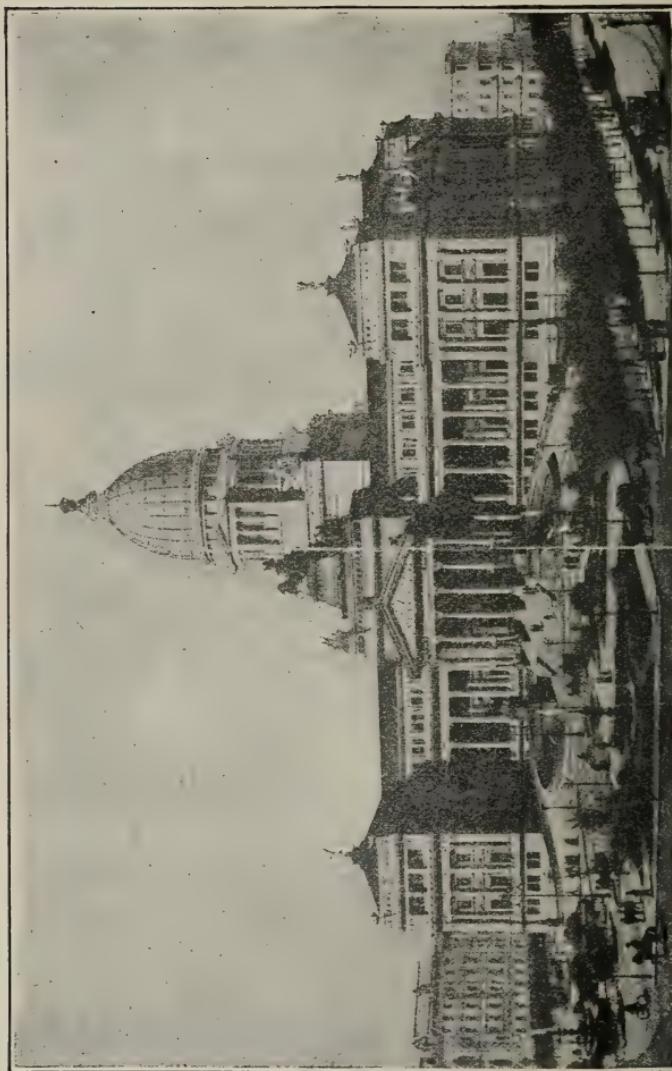
By countries the imports and exports for the year 1911 were as follows:

COUNTRIES	IMPORTS	EXPORTS
Great Britain	\$4,863,318	\$23,237,080
Germany	4,021,264	4,287,162
United States	3,847,200	244,345
Chile	3,836,552	169,175
Belgium	1,584,942	1,466,348
Argentina	1,255,635	177,188
France	1,104,391	2,132,828
Peru	1,076,165

Sr. Ignacio Calderon, minister of Bolivia at Washington, has furnished a table showing the exports from the port of San Francisco, California, to Bolivia during the first quarter of 1913. The shipments during these three months consisted of 100,914 packages weighing 3,911,402 kilos valued at \$147,016.16. This merchandise, classified according to value, is as follows: Flour \$108,592.05, machinery \$21,973.73, lumber \$9382.71, groceries \$6914.92, and miscellaneous articles \$152.-

75. Of these shipments goods to the value of \$90,233.72 entered Bolivia via Mollendo, Peru; \$33,925.71 via Antofagasta, Chile; and \$22,856.73 via Arica, Chile.

As Bolivia is an inland country how can people and commercial articles enter? There are five principal routes as follows: 1. From Mollendo, Peru, to Puno on Lake Titicaca by rail, 324 miles, then across the lake by steamer, 180 miles. 2. From Arica, Chile, to La Paz by rail, 250 miles. 3. From Antofagasta, Chile, to La Paz by rail, 719 miles in three days; this line runs through some of the finest Andine scenery of the South American continent. 4. From the mouth of the Amazon to Porto Acre, a distance of 2533 miles, on river boats. 5. From Buenos Aires by rail and then by stage, a total distance of 1850 miles.



THE CAPITOL AT BUENOS AIRES, ARGENTINE REPUBLIC, AND THE PLAZA DEL CONGRESO

THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

1819 to 1912.

The Argentine revolutionary period came to a close with the proclamation of independence by the congress which held its sessions in Tucuman at the time. The subsequent independent history of Argentina transpired in three sections; to wit, anarchy, tyranny, and republican life.

1. ANARCHY, 1819 to 1829.

These first ten years were a period of endeavors to give the country a form of government by formulating a constitution. The opinions as to what the country should have, however, differed to such an extent that harmony seemed to be impossible; consequently there were appeals to arms. As long as Argentina had no fundamental law, had no guiding and controlling head revolutions prevailed and anarchy became rampant in the country.

The Tucuman congress framed a constitution in 1819 which made Argentina a unitary republic. Those who preferred the federal form of government did not accept the constitution and their leaders who were the governors of the maritime provinces, thought the situation to be sufficient reason to foment disharmony and to draw the country into a civil war. Ramirez of Entre Rios, the province between the Parana and Uruguay rivers, and Lopez of Santa Fe raised forces and opened a bloody campaign against Buenos Aires which was unitary in principle. The federal movement was strengthened by other governors who joined it.

Director Pueyrredon of Buenos Aires, seeing the storm approach, abdicated and Rondeau succeeded him June 9th, 1819, determined to oppose the federal leaders energetically. Rondeau united the forces that were at his disposal and was

re-enforced by Balcarce with 1200 infantry. They marched out to meet the federals and, coming in contact with Ramirez February 1st, 1820, they were defeated in a battle in which they suffered serious losses. Ramirez, the victor, demanded the retirement of Rondeau, congress dissolved, and the cabildo of Buenos Aires took charge of the management. The consequences were that the national authority disappeared from Argentina, that the provinces became isolated, and that each one governed itself by itself and for itself; thus the first national dissolution was brought about.

Manuel Sarratea was appointed governor of the Buenos Aires province. He made an agreement with the federal leaders, Ramirez and Lopez, by virtue of which the provinces of the governors who signed the agreement accepted federation as the form of government and obliged themselves to call a congress to which the other provinces were to be invited. This arrangement, however, did not secure peace; for disorder continued in the Buenos Aires province as well as in other provinces, because the men who had directed the movement and still continued to be leaders, were of selfish and hateful dispositions. This was the fatal year 1820 in which ten governments followed one another so that the country presented a lamentable aspect, and in which San Martin left Chile's hospitable coast with his liberating expedition for Peru, violating his government's order to return home and to assist in fighting the enemies of the fatherland.

September 26th, 1820, the people of Buenos Aires elected *Don Martin Rodriguez* governor, one of whose ministers was noteworthy Bernhard Rivadavia. Under his government the cabildo which was a Spanish institution, was suppressed and judicial courts were established throughout the Buenos Aires province. The city received, at this time, the first chamber of provincial representation, composed of 13 deputies. This chamber had legislative power and enacted laws among which were the inviolability of persons and properties and the pardon

of past political offenses. By virtue of this last law many individuals who had found it expedient to leave the province, could now return without being molested. Rodriguez' beneficial administration founded a university, opened a museum and various schools, and organized a benevolent society. January, 1822, the four provinces Buenos Aires, Santa Fe, Entre Rios, and Corrientes signed treaty articles by which each one promised to respect the autonomy of the others and to unite its forces with those of the others for common defense.

Rodriguez was succeeded by *General Las Heras* in the government of Buenos Aires. Very much fighting had been going on throughout the Argentine provinces; but now the people began to think about peace and union in earnest. The new Buenos Aires administration sent agents to the provinces to persuade them to unite so as to form a national union. The provinces responded and sent their deputies to Buenos Aires to constitute a general congress. Having met December, 1824, they deliberated the form of government which they should give the country and which should be embodied in the constitution. It soon became evident that the partisans of the unitary system were predominant. They directed the deliberations to the effect that a constitution was drafted which created a unitary republic. The document was completed in 1826 and copies of it were sent to the provincial legislatures for adoption or rejection. Unfortunately, however, congress did not wait for the answers of the provinces, but resolved to create a permanent executive power without further delay and elected, February 7th, 1826, *Don Bernhard Rivadavia* president of the Argentine Republic by 35 votes against 3. This unwise way of procedure, i. e. of organizing before the provinces had consented, brought about new disturbances, yes revolutions which became disastrous to the country. Chile fared better. The federals rejected the constitution and annoyed President Rivadavia who was chief of the unitary party, in every possible way and to such an extent that they became intolerable. The

discontent became general and assumed such an alarming attitude that it accepted the form of a revolution and this at the time when Argentina carried on a war with Brazil on account of Uruguay. Rivadavia—annoyances having been effective—abdicated before congress in 1827, which accepted the resignation and soon after dissolved. Thus the second national dissolution was brought about; for the unitary party, having had the controlling power, was defeated and the separation of the provinces took place as in 1820.

The province of Buenos Aires elected *Colonel Manuel Dorrego* governor who was the chief of the federal party. He entered upon his duties August 13th, 1827, amidst general rejoicing and initiated an administration which brought tranquility into the country. The provinces empowered Dorrego to prosecute the war with Brazil with all energy, to make peace when the time may have come, and to direct the foreign affairs. The people centuplicated their exertions in carrying on the war so as to achieve the highest results, and the most complete victory was the prize of their valor and heroism.

Lavalle's Revolution.

The war with Brazil having terminated, the unitary party tried to regain its lost power, counting on the assistance of Generals J. Lavalle and J. M. Paz who returned from the war. Lavalle landed with his division at Buenos Aires November 29th, 1828. When the first of December dawned the division was assembled on the plaza of Victoria and excited to revolt by its commander. Lavalle deposed Dorrego and invited the people to an open assembly which met that same day and appointed him absolute and military governor.

Dorrego fled into the province to unite a fighting force. Assisted by the military commander of the territory, who was Don John Manuel Rosas, he united about 2000 men for the purpose of overthrowing Lavalle. The latter marched out to fight him and easily defeated him at Navarro December 9th.

Dorrego escaped, but was overtaken in his flight and made a prisoner. Lavalle, at the instigation of the principals of his party, committed the very grave error of ordering to shoot him—an order which was executed without any form of a trial and which allowed Dorrego only a few hours to prepare for death. As Dorrego had been a prominent person and a successful administrator his execution was a public loss and it became the occasion for J. M. Rosas to acquire the supreme power, whose despotism the people had to bear a long time. Rosas and Lopez united their forces against Lavalle who was defeated by Lopez at Puente Marquez and was obliged to sign a treaty of peace with Rosas; it seems Lavalle went to live in Montevideo. The federal leaders again controlled the Argentine interior and did not now meet with obstacles as they had done before.

2. TYRANNY, 1829 to 1852.

The ten years' anarchical conditions seemed to demand that a strong man manage the affairs and control the antagonizing parties of Argentina. The man was on hand in the person of *Juan Manuel Rosas*, who, however, did not merely manage and control, but abused his powers and trampled the rights of the people under foot. In the persecution of his opponents he was worse than a despot, he became a tyrant.

When deputies were elected for the Buenos Aires assembly in 1829 it was done under the management and influence of Rosas, and the representatives, in session assembled, elected him governor of the province, conceding him extraordinary powers and giving him the title "Restorer of the Laws." However, Rosas, far from restoring the laws, laid the constitution aside, governed the province according to his whims, and made such use of the extraordinary powers as suited his ambition best. He employed all the time of his first term in making himself feared and in organizing an army which he ordered to occupy all the principal points of the province.

His first term of three years having ended in December, 1832, the chamber of deputies re-elected him governor, but this time not conceding him the extraordinary powers. Rosas declined to accept the office thus curtailed and went south with his army to conquer the southern desert regions. While he was absent from Buenos Aires and others governed the prov-



J. M. ROSAS, the Tyrant
† 1877

ince the difficulties increased so rapidly and life became so insecure that the assembly recalled him, made him governor again, and endowed him with all the powers he might need to manage. All such powers Rosas made use of. He made himself prominent by having his pictures exhibited on triumphal cars which were taken through the streets and by putting them up in churches to public view. Public documents were headed thus: "May the Argentine Confederation live!" and "May the uni-

tary savages die!" Death was about the only punishment that offenders were made to suffer, might the offense be theft, desertion or any other crime. People were shot without a trial or defense, often when there was but a mere suspicion. Assassinations became customary and were always excused when the victim was a member of the opposing party. Rosas organized the Mozarka, a society of bandits who assaulted such as did not think as he thought, lashing and beheading them. All the laws which were to protect the properties and rights of men, were violated by these bandits. The hospitals, the schools, the liberty of the press and of speech disappeared one after the other. All that the country had gained in civilization, in culture was being lost; barbarity took the place of banished civilization. Nor were the neighboring provinces more fortunate than that of Buenos Aires; for the federal leaders who governed them, were docile instruments of Rosas and, instigated by him, persecuted the members of the unitary party everywhere, apparently trying to exterminate them. Therefore the larger part of the families of that party left to seek refuge in other countries, especially in Chile, Bolivia, and Uruguay. According to Rivera Indarte 22,400 Argentinos perished during Rosas' despotism by being shot, beheaded or poisoned. Even the representatives of European nations were treated harshly and offensively. For instance in 1837 Rosas made the French do service for him, for which insult a French squadron blockaded the Buenos Aires port. To crown all this the tyrant titled himself "Defender of the American Independence."

Campaigns Against Rosas.

Two principal movements were undertaken to overthrow the tyrant; the first occurred in 1839. In Montevideo an expedition which was called "Liberating Army" was organized by General J. Lavalle, the unitary antagonist of the federals, whom the reader has already learned to know. He left Monte-

video with but 400 men and won a victory at Yerna over 1500 of the enemy. When then his force increased and Lavalle marched against Buenos Aires, General Lopez, governor of Santa Fe, came with a strong army to the assistance of Rosas. Santa Fe being now unprotected Lavalle marched thither and took the city. In the meantime, however, Rosas had united a considerable force of disciplined troops and put it at Manuel



A GAUCHO, OR AN ARGENTINE COWBOY

Oribe's command. At this time the French government raised the blockade of the port in consequence of a treaty signed with Rosas. When Ovalle returned from Santa Fe to overthrow Rosas he was encountered by Oribe and defeated with heavy losses in the battle of Quebracho Herrado. He fled with the troops that were left him from place to place, but was overtaken by Oribe and again defeated. While, after this last disaster, Lavalle was lodging in a house with his secretary and adjutant a party of Argentine gauchos passed and, discharging a volley against the door that was locked, a bullet struck

and killed the valiant commander. Would that bullet have hit Lavalle had he spared the life of Governor Dorrego? The remnants of the "Liberating Army" were captured by Oribe and brought to Buenos Aires. General Oribe, having successfully overcome and annihilated the invading army and having secured for Tyrant Rosas a lease on life in the forties, invaded the Oriental Republic and besieged Montevideo, because it was the seat of the unitary party. The city resisted the siege heroically for a space of nine years, but the country districts of Uruguay were devasted during those years.

In 1851 General J. J. Urquiza who was governor of the Entre Ríos province, addressed a proclamation to all the provinces inciting them to war against Rosas' tyranny, whereupon Rosas mobilized his forces and united them in Santos Lugares. Urquiza at the head of 5000 men crossed the Uruguay river and, before attacking Rosas, marched on Montevideo to force Oribe to raise the siege of that city. The besieging troops, being mostly Argentinos and having been in Uruguay many years, longed to return home, and thus, instead of resisting when Urquiza arrived, they passed over to his ranks. Urquiza repassed the Uruguay immediately with his re-enforced army and established his headquarters in Diamante where his army increased until it numbered 30,000 men—the largest fighting force which until then had been organized in South America. He soon crossed the Paraná and without loss of time marched on Buenos Aires. Rosas awaited him at Monte Caseros, 12 miles from Buenos Aires, where the armies clashed February 3rd, 1852. The fortune of war forsook Rosas; for he was defeated and the long period of his tyranny brought to a speedy end. He fled from the battlefield and a few hours later embarked in an English vessel which had been engaged beforehand. The vessel carried him to England where he lived until the advanced age of 84 years; he died in 1877.

Agreement of San Nicolas, 1852.

After the fall of Rosas an attempt was at once made to reorganize the country. To this end a meeting of governors was called who should seek the way that was to be pursued. They met at San Nicolas and after lengthy deliberations came to the conclusion to organize the country under the federal system. All the governors present signed the agreement May 31st, 1852, and chose General Urquiza provisional director. Was peace now assured? No! The legislature of Buenos Aires protested against the manner of proceeding, denying the governors the right to convey national powers without the previous consent of the people. A constituent congress was called and pressure brought to bear upon the Buenos Aires' protesting government, in consequence of which the governor of Buenos Aires resigned and Urquiza dissolved its legislature. When then the latter went to Santa Fe to exert his influence over the constituent congress which met in that city, a revolution broke out in Buenos Aires for the purpose of separating the capital from the authority of the director and of working completely independent of the resolutions the congress of Santa Fe might adopt. General Galan whom Urquiza had left in Buenos Aires as provisional governor, was deposed and the province organized its government by appointing Valentin Alsina governor. Colonel Lagos besieged the city seven months, but did not reach any results.

3. REPUBLICAN LIFE, 1853 to 1912.

After more than thirty years of warfare and warlike conditions, after many attempts to formulate a constitution and to organize the Argentine provinces politically had failed, the federal system, initiated in 1852, found general acceptance, gave the country quietude and stability, and assured good progress for the future. The constitution, though some of its clauses have since been amended, is still in vogue. The national congress of Santa Fe published the constitution May 1st, 1853,

which established a federal government that consisted in the three powers, executive, legislative, and judicial, and which recognized Buenos Aires as the capital of the nation. Argentina thus became one of the three South American republics which adopted the federal union of states for their form of national organization, the other two being the United States of Brazil and the United States of Venezuela. All the other South American republics have a unitary form of government.

J. J. Urquiza who had been provisional director, was elected the first president of the republic. He established his residence in the city of Parana, because Buenos Aires kept itself separate and had formulated its own constitution. Only after another civil war became Buenos Aires willing to examine the national constitution for the purpose of adopting it, too. It proposed some changes which the national congress accepted, whereupon Buenos Aires signed it October, 1860, and thus completed the organization of the republic. Of the presidents who have directed the affairs of the Argentine Republic in the last fifty years we shall mention only those who have contributed mostly to the advancement of the country.

Presidency of General Mitre, 1862 to 1868.

President Bartholomew Mitre transplanted the seat of government to Buenos Aires. His administration paid special attention to colonization and to the construction of railroads. National colleges were established in almost all the provinces; a code of commercial laws was promulgated; commerce and industries progressed. While this constructive work was carried on the peace of the republic was disturbed by an aggression of the Paraguayan government.

War with Paraguay.

In Paraguay governed Dictator F. S. Lopez who carried on a tyranny in his country similar to that of former Rosas of Buenos Aires. He dreamed of becoming a crowned emperor

and of waging wars as Napoleon had done in Europe. At the time of Mitre's administration Lopez was at war with Brazil and to invade the Brazilian province Rio Grande do Sul in 1865 he asked for the permission to pass through the Argentine province Corrientes. Before Mitre's negative answer could reach him the Paraguayans invaded the province and seized the Argentine boats that were anchored in the Uruguay river. The Argentine government could not tolerate such a violence and formed with Brazil and the Oriental Republic a triple alliance for the purpose of overthrowing the Paraguayan tyrant. The allies chose President Mitre to command the armies, who went to the seat of war in 1866 and left the home administration in the hands of Vice-president Marcos Paz. Though Paraguay is insignificant if compared with the three allied countries, yet the Paraguayan army was more numerous at the beginning of the war than the allied; for Lopez had trained a well equipped army and now pressed into service all available men. In the last years of the war he forced into the fighting lines or rather into death even boys of but nine years of age. Mitre invaded Paraguay through the pass of La Patria and entered upon a campaign which lasted five years and in which many bloody battles were fought. The Paraguayans exhibited great valor and heroism and also placed much confidence in their fortified places. But their fortifications were demolished and the allied armies forced their way step by step through to Asuncion, the capital. When the enemy approached that city Lopez obliged the whole remaining population to wander into the northern interior of the country. Men and women, children and old folks, friends and prisoners, all started out and made their way through forests and thorn-bushes where nobody ever had set a foot, dying by hundreds daily through fatigue and lack of food. Tyrant Lopez himself fell at last a victim to fatigue and privation, was overtaken by a party of Brazilian soldiers, and met death in the thicket of a forest. From the five years' war the Argent-

tine Republic derived no benefit; it had but assisted in liberating the Paraguayan people from the perverse despot who had enslaved them.

Presidency of Senyor Sarmiento, 1868 to 1874.

When Mitre's term of office ended Domingo F. Sarmiento who had been an Argentine minister in the United States, was elected president and entered upon his duties October 12th, 1868. He dedicated himself principally to public instruction, having brought the idea of a public school system from the United States, and had normal and common schools erected, giving praiseworthy impulse to the instruction of the young. The railroad to Cordoba was finished and the city of Buenos Aires improved and made more beautiful. — During this administration the first president, J. J. Urquiza, was assassinated while he was again governor of the Entre Rios province. The circumstances, connected with this political crime, necessitated an armed intervention in that province which caused the nation a considerable loss in men and money.

Administration of Dr. Avellaneda, 1874 to 1880.

Towards the close of Sarmiento's administration two important parties, revolting, engaged in actual warfare on account of the coming election. The nationalists were directed by ex-President Mitre and the autonomists by Adolph Alsina with whose support Dr. Avellaneda was elected to the presidency in 1874. Though his administration experienced, from the beginning, much opposition and apathy, yet he succeeded in reconciling the political antagonists so as to unite and to participate in the duties of the government. President Avellaneda continued the good works of his predecessors in the various spheres of public utility and the country did not relax in its effort to develop and to progress. He thought of making the southern regions, the pampas on which the natives still roamed, available for cultivation and commissioned Adolph

Alsina who was minister of war to subdue the Indians. Alsina began the campaign which his successor in the ministry, General Roca, concluded. Thereby about 180,000 square miles were secured for agriculture and pasture, an area larger than Alabama, Georgia, and Florida combined.



JULIUS A. ROCA

In 1880 *General Julius A. Roca* who had fought the Indians, was elected president. He averted a war with Chile which threatened to break out as the result of the Magellan boundary dispute, as we learned from Chile's history. He was elected to the presidential chair for a second term in 1898. Railway constructions and agricultural development effected a transformation of the fertile prairies, or pampas, of the country and changed them into productive farms of cereals and grasses. Large areas of the more arid plains of the higher lands were, by means of irrigation, converted into rich tracts

suitable for grazing purposes; they are unexcelled in any part of the world for stock raising. The present incumbent of the presidency is Dr. Roque Sáenz Peña who was inaugurated October 12th, 1910.

STATISTICAL REPORT.

The Argentine Republic, the second largest of the South American countries, has an area of 1,139,979 square miles, equal to more than one-third of the total area of the United States of America proper, and it has a population of 6,987,023, or 6.13 per square mile, as against 30.9 per square mile in the United States.

Stretching over 33 degrees of latitude the country presents a variety of climates and products, ranging from tropical in the north to arctic in the south; but the larger part of its territory lies within the temperate zone. The broad fertile plains extending from the Atlantic to the foot of the Andes, afford excellent pasturage for myriads of cattle; and nearly all cereals, especially wheat, corn, and oats, as well as linseed and alfalfa, are successfully cultivated. Other industrial articles produced in export quantities are hides and skins of various kinds, and the valuable quebracho wood and its extract. Sugar, cotton, tobacco, and grapes are grown, but mostly for home consumption. The mountains contain deposits of silver, copper, and gold, which are as yet exploited only to a limited extent.

The Argentine Republic is divided into 14 provinces, 10 territories, and one federal district; the provinces are autonomous in their interior government. The principal cities with their populations are Buenos Aires, 1,376,511 (April, 1912); Rosario, 250,000; La Plata, 125,000; Cordoba, 65,000; Tucuman, 60,000; Mendoza, 55,000; Bahia Blanca, 40,000; Santa Fe, 49,000; Parana, 30,000; Corrientes, 20,000. The main ports are Buenos Aires, Rosario, and Bahia Blanca.

The imports by principal countries of origin and the exports to those countries in 1911 were as follows:

COUNTRIES	IMPORTS Pesos	EXPORTS Pesos
United Kingdom	108,637,430	91,841,231
Germany	65,862,211	43,073,014
United States	52,353,390	24,300,464
France	38,026,555	39,692,434
Italy	29,345,979	13,586,633
Belgium	19,485,211	35,625,605
Spain	11,279,465	2,177,729
Brazil	8,461,416	17,874,105
Austria-Hungary	4,304,114	2,398,076
Uruguay	3,069,648	2,340,913
Holland	2,977,739	6,440,450
Paraguay	2,961,393
Canada	2,883,761
Switzerland	2,867,224
Russia	1,738,131	266,206
Sweden	1,666,645	1,004,209
Norway	1,041,123	782,467
China	600,938
Chile	682,302	2,988,695
Peru	521,603
Total	365,810,686	324,697,538

As an Argentine peso equals 97 cents U. S. currency, the above figures almost represent U. S. dollars.

The following table shows the percentage which the exports of the eight leading countries bear to the total export of Argentina. We give these percentages for the years 1909, 1910, and 1911.

	1909	1910	1911
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
United Kingdom	20.3	21.7	28.3
Germany	10.4	12.1	13.3
France	9.8	10.1	12.2
Belgium	10.4	8.2	11.0
United States	6.6	6.8	7.5
Brazil	4.2	4.7	5.5
Italy	3.2	2.8	4.2
Holland	1.5	1.2	2.0

The following table presents the immense export trade of Argentina under six heads, for the same three years.

	1909 Pesos	1910 Pesos	1911 Pesos
Live animals and meat products	153,548,356	161,006,591	168,394,733
Agricultural products	230,503,996	196,581,619	139,764,386
Forest products	8,927,362	10,564,515	12,254,604
Mine products	742,707	539,902	565,338
Hunting and fishing	752,020	1,428,884	1,663,285
Miscellaneous	2,876,087	2,504,533	2,055,192
Total	397,350,518	372,626,055	324,697,538

The Argentine Republic is practically covered with a *network of railways* which extends in every direction and connects the capital with all points north and south and west. The railway extending north from Buenos Aires connects with

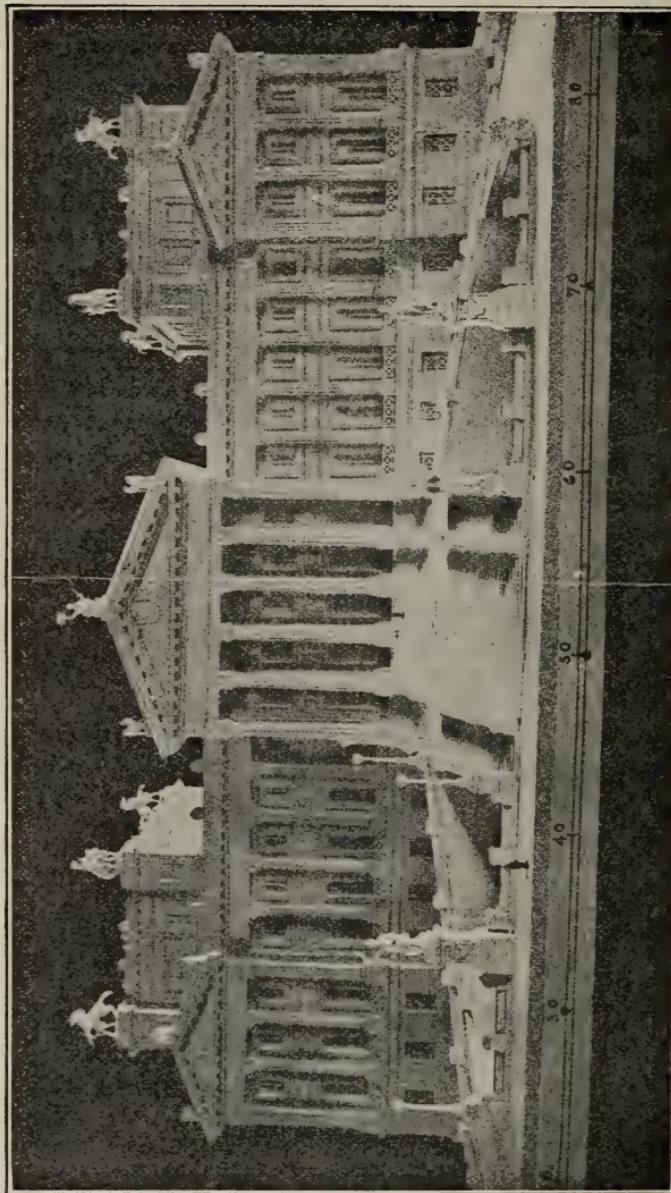
the Bolivian Railway and the latter, when completed, will establish direct communication with the capital of Bolivia. The Buenos Aires and Pacific Railway makes connection with the Transandine Railway at Mendoza which, by the completion of the tunnel through the Andes in April, 1910, established the much needed railway connection between Chile and Argentina. The last named railway inaugurated a triweekly service between Buenos Aires and Valparaiso beginning April 12th, 1910, the schedule time for the trip being thirty-eight hours. A line has also been completed which establishes direct communication by rail between Buenos Aires and Asuncion, the capital of Paraguay. January 1st, 1912, there were in operation in the Argentine Republic 33,657 kilometers (20,918 miles) of railway, representing a capitalization of over \$1,000,000,000. The number of passengers carried in 1909 was 50,810,000 and the amount of freight transported was 31,955,000 tons.

Agriculture is the principal source of national wealth of the republic. Of a total of 19,500,000 hectares (1 hectare equals 2.47 acres) of land under cultivation in 1910, 5,836,500 were sown to wheat, 3,005,000 to corn, 1,445,600 to linseed, 4,706,530 to alfalfa, and 4,360,000 to other crops; such as, oats, barley, rice, cotton, and the vine. During 1911, 1,200,000 additional hectares were brought under cultivation so that at the beginning of 1912 the entire cultivated area amounted to 21,884,000 hectares. — In 1910 Argentina stood second in the amount of wheat exported to other countries; for it exported 80 per cent of its crop, the rest being sufficient to supply its 7,000,000 inhabitants. Of the world's wheat supply the United States furnish 20 per cent and Argentina 5 per cent.

An excellent opportunity exists for the development of the textile industry, in as much as the country is rich in natural and cultivated fiber-producing plants; such as, hemp, flax, ramic, and cotton. Considerable quantities of harvest twine, cotton yarn or thread, jute and cotton sacks, and jute cloth are

imported into the country. It is estimated that articles could be manufactured in the Argentine Republic out of the fibres produced there that would have a sale of \$20,000,000 annually.

The current of *immigration* set steadily toward the republic in the latter years, although not with the same intensity as in the years before; the immigrants who arrived in 1909, numbered 232,458. Argentina owes much of her wonderful progress and development to the brawn and capital of her immigrants. Perhaps no country in the world at the present time offers greater opportunities and rewards to agriculturists and artisans than does the Argentine Republic which has so generously opened its doors to all who desire to come and assist in the development of the resources of one of the richest countries of the globe. — Since 1883 the telephone system is in operation in Buenos Aires and other Argentine cities.



THE CAPITOL AT MONTEVIDEO, URUGUAY
The corner stone was laid by President Batlle in 1906

THE ORIENTAL REPUBLIC OF URUGUAY.

1828 to 1911.

The war of Brazil and Argentina on account of Uruguay ended in 1828 with the treaty that made the Oriental Banda an independent state. May 1st, 1829, a constituent assembly met and after four months of deliberations completed the constitution which gave the country the name "Oriental Republic" with the addition "of the Uruguay," referring to the river and which created a unitary republican form of government. Copies of the document were sent to the Argentine and the Brazilian governments, as they had had vital interests in the Banda Oriental and wanted to be protected against future disturbances. They approved the constitution and thus the new republic received its own existence. Some Argentine influence over the new state and its capital nevertheless continued and resulted in Oribe's nine years' war and siege of Montevideo which was terminated by Urquiza in 1851. After this destructive war the Oriental Republic presented a sad aspect — the fields were forsaken, the ranches ruined, the farmyards demolished, the country folks were without roof and bread, and scarcely a town or settlement could be found that had not been ruined or destroyed by soldiery. Montevideo's population was then 34,000.

In 1852 *J. F. Giro* became constitutional president. He made earnest endeavors to bring tranquility among the people and to improve the desolate condition of the country. A mutiny, however, obliged him to resign in 1853 and interregnum followed.

Bernhard P. Berro was elected president in 1860. Before he entered upon his administration a terrible case of yellow fever had decimated the population of Montevideo. 1000 persons had succumbed to the terrible affliction among whom

were members of the most prominent families. This calamity having subsided, a revolution broke out which also demanded many victims and retarded administrative work. President Berro, being animated by the desire to heal the wounds of the fatherland to the best of his ability, created a board of merchants whose duty it should be to inform the government of the means that might be conducive to the welfare of the republic. Many commercial articles of common use were declared free of duty and the tariff on other articles was notably lowered whereby the economic conditions were improved. The limits of Montevideo were extended and the city was provided with better lights. Berro proved to be one of the best administrators of the Oriental Republic.

His term of office having ended, the war of the triple alliance against Francis S. Lopez, the despot of Paraguay, was fought, lasting from 1865 to 1870 and demanding active service also on the part of Uruguay. The following two years, up to 1872, were full of revolutionary movements, full of general disturbances and bloody fights in the republic so that but little or nothing could be done in the way of public improvements and progress. When then *President Thomas Gomensoro* established peace between the contending parties tranquility returned and with it prosperity — agriculture was successful, industry and commerce began to revive, railroads were built and completed. However, yellow fever appeared again and wrought havoc among the population; even a minister of the government succumbed to the terrible plague.

In 1876 *Colonel L. Latorre* made himself dictator of the Oriental Republic. His first acts of government gave promise of an honest and decent administration and caused confidence to return. He made country life tolerable by pursuing the bandits that infested the rural districts and by putting a stop to robberies. Latorre organized a public school system and improved commercial affairs. However, in spite of his beneficial endeavors so much opposition arose against him

that he declined to serve any longer and declared the Orientals ungovernable. This declaration was more fully verified in the eighties when one president-elect had to abdicate after the other. As the revolutionary disturbances wiped the administrations away and the many changes of governments increased the general disorder, Uruguay was in a constant turmoil.

Dr. Julius Herrera who was elected president in 1890, was a talented lawyer and known as such all over the country. Herrera became one of the ablest and most enlightened administrators of the republic. During his term of office the country passed through a troublesome financial crisis that had been occasioned by previous administrations and revolutions and that affected commerce and all the industries. The president did all in his power to alleviate the financial strain and was partially successful.

With the termination of Herrera's term in 1894 revolutionary movements again broke out and disturbed the public order until *John L. Cuestas* took charge of the administration in 1897. Cuestas' great achievement was the construction of the Montevideo wharf whereby a real harbor was created. He laid the first stone to the great work July 18th, 1901, and thus opened an era of prosperity for the fatherland. Says a historian: "The act alone of having inaugurated the grand work of the harbor, is sufficient reason why the name of President Cuestas should pass into posterity."

In 1903 Dr. Joseph Batlle was elected president to succeed Dr. Cuestas. In the beginning of the following year a revolution to overthrow him broke out, lasting about that



DR. JULIUS HERRERA

whole year. Seven bloody and destructive battles were fought in which the most revolutionary leaders were killed, and then peace was made. When the oriental family was again reconciled President Batlle could dedicate himself to the works of peace. He laid the corner-stones of various public buildings,—of the legislative palace, of a business college, of a medical school, etc. When the public treasury had partly recovered from the loss the last revolution had caused, the government resolved to make another loan, bringing the total foreign debt up to \$121,000,000. In 1906 the first electric lines were laid in Montevideo, and it was resolved to enlarge the railroad system of the republic.



JOSEPH BATLLE
President of Uruguay

In 1907 Dr. Claudius Williman was elected president for a term of four years. He initiated an era of peace and prosperity which continued during his administration and was fruitful in material progress both for the capital and the country. Joseph Batlle who had been his predecessor, also became his successor and was inaugurated March 1st, 1811, to serve a second term.

STATISTICAL REPORT.

Uruguay has an area of 72,210 square miles and although it is the smallest of the South American republics, it is larger than New York and West Virginia combined. It has a population of 1,042,686 or 14.3 persons to the square mile.

The most notable feature of Uruguay is its extent of long rolling plains, covering almost the entire length of the country, occasionally broken by low mountain ranges and copiously watered by numerous streams. By reason of its peculiar topography the Oriental Republic is naturally suited for both

sheep and cattle raising which is its principal industry. Numerous meat-packing houses are located throughout its territory. Agriculture is practiced to a considerable extent, nearly all of the cereals being raised, although mostly for home consumption, only a small quantity being until recently available for export. In the forests are found a number of excellent cabinet and other woods, noted for their beauty and desirability, while the mountains contain silver, copper, and gold.

The constitution that was formulated in 1829 and approved by Argentina and Brazil, is still in vogue. The senate and house of representatives compose the general assembly in which all legislative power is vested. The president is chosen by the general assembly for a term of four years and may not be re-elected for the term immediately following his own. The republic is divided politically into 19 departments which are subdivided into sections and districts. The representatives of the executive power in the departments are the *jefes politicos* and *de policia*, appointed by the president of the republic. Besides them, there is in each department an *intendente municipal* assisted by a council whose members are elected by direct vote.

The principal cities and their populations are Montevideo, 350,000; Paysandu, 20,000; Salto, 20,000; Mercedes, 16,000; and San José, 12,000.

Uruguay is like Argentina chiefly an agricultural and pastoral country and, being in practically the same latitude as the sister republic across the river La Plata, is affected by the same conditions. It is pleasant to note, therefore, that the prosperity so characteristic of the larger Argentine Republic is likewise reflected in the smaller Oriental.

The trade statistics of Uruguay show that since 1903 there has been a steady increase in the foreign commerce — both in imports and exports — and that with only the exception of the year 1906 the balance of trade was in favor of the republic. In 1909 this balance of trade, i. e. the surplus of

the exports over the imports, was \$8,978,256. In 1911 the total value of the Uruguayan foreign trade was \$94,005,151.76, of which total \$47,687,115.84 were imports and \$46,318,035.92 were exports. Uruguay exports more products of its pastoral than of its agricultural industry. However, the crops of grain are large and the factories for the preparation of meat products are kept busy during the year. During 1909 the following live stock was exported from the Uruguayan ports: 38,481 head of cattle, 42,063 sheep, and 8864 horses. Uruguay is essentially a pastoral country, 94 per cent of its exports being the products of its herds and flocks and 97 per cent of its area being devoted to the pastoral industry; for of the something more than 42,500,000 acres of land in Uruguay, practically 2,000,000 acres are devoted to agriculture, 1,650,000 acres are occupied by the forests, and the rest, or about 39,000,000 acres, is used for pastures. Of the agricultural products wheat is raised most plentifully, then follow corn, barley, oats, linseed, and birdseed. — Of the great estancias, or grass farms, devoted to the raising of live stock, the German Liebig Company owns seven in Uruguay for the supply of its extract factory. The killing season commences early in January and lasts until June; 252,630 cattle were slaughtered during the year 1907. The killing is done under the inspection of an expert of the company and great care is exercised in the selection of the animals.

The Pan American Railway Company is pushing its work with renewed activity and an increased force of workmen and employes. The section of the line between Trinidad and Durazno will be opened to traffic in a short while and, if necessary, the company will doubtless be granted a reasonable extension of time in which to complete and open to traffic the entire line. The company has agreed to settle agricultural colonists on 40,000 hectares, or 98,800 acres, of land along its line between Colonia and San Luis.

A German steamship company, using petroleum as fuel,

has been organized to operate between Montevideo, Buenos Aires, Asuncion and intermediate points on the La Plata, Parana, Uruguay, and Paraguay Rivers. The first of these steamers, called Herman Krabb, is an 800-ton vessel and has a speed of from 10 to 12 miles an hour. All the vessels of this company will fly the flag of the republic of Uruguay.

Since 1890 the city of El Salto has been one of the principal apicultural centers of the Oriental Republic. One bee-keeper, who had a number of colonies of Italian bees, produced at last spring's harvest 4000 kilos of an excellent quality of honey. There is a large number of beekeepers in this neighborhood, who have only a few hives, but the yield of honey per hive is always very large and of a fine quality.

The health statistic is very favorable to the Oriental Republic. The latest statistics show that there are in France 93 deaths to 100 births, in Spain 80, in Chile 74, in England 59, in Germany 58, in Argentina 45, and in Uruguay only 40.



MALE RHEA, OR SOUTH AMERICAN OSTRICH

The specimen of the *Rhea Americana* shown in this photograph is exceptional in coloring, the plumage being much lighter than is usually the case. The cocks are generally larger than the hens and have longer and finer feathers, which are dyed and used for ornamental purposes. Sometimes the plumes of the African ostrich, used for ornamenting ladies' hats, are added to and built up by using portions of the rhea feathers. The poorer grades of the feathers are used for making fly brushes, feather dusters, etc. The male rhea generally collects a harem of hens and each hen contributes her share to a common nest, which is often found to contain as many as 40 to 50 eggs. It is the male bird that sits and hatches the eggs and afterwards takes care of the brood. The eggs are frequently as much as 5 to 6 inches in length and 3 to 4 inches in diameter and weigh as much as a pound and a half. Although usually rather shy and easily frightened, the cock often shows great courage in protecting the young and will not hesitate to attack a man or horse in defense of the brood.

THE REPUBLIC OF PARAGUAY.

1814 to 1912.

We left the history of Paraguay when Dr. Francia who had introduced ancient Roman methods into his government, was in power. In 1844 these methods were changed and the executive power was vested in a president who was elected for a term of ten years. *Charles Anton Lopez* was the first president, was less despotic than his predecessor and entered into commerical relations with foreign nations, lifting the country out of its isolated condition in which Dr. Francia had kept it. However, he established an arsenal in Asuncion, the capital, and began to put the republic on a formidable war footing. Upon the completion of his first term he was re-elected, but he died September 10th, 1862, before his second term was completed, having conducted the Paraguayan affairs eighteen years. His son Francis S. Lopez succeeded him in the presidency in 1862 and continued his father's war preparations. In 1864 he had 80,000 cavalry and infantry men at his command with 130 guns and abundant war material and dreamed of becoming a great conqueror and emperor. The following year he caused the disastrous war with the triple alliance which ended in the downfall of his power and in his death March 1st, 1870. A historian makes it clear why the war lasted so long, namely five years, and why it became so disastrous to Paraguay, when he writes: "The war lasted so very long because never has a people defended itself more heroically than the Paraguayan. Before the war Paraguay had had 1,200,000 inhabitants; after the same it had 148,000 females and 12,000 males, or a total of 160,000 persons, only



F. S. LOPEZ

about the eighth part of the original population having survived."

After the war a committee of 21 undertook the reestablishment of the governmental affairs. It negotiated a treaty of peace with the allied powers which was signed June 20th, 1870, and called a congress of representatives of the people. This congress, having met November 25th of the same year, drafted a constitution in which the presidential powers were stipulated and the government was completely reorganized.

It intrusted a triumvirate with the provisional administration and in the following year Don Joseph S. Jovellanos was elected president by popular vote and inaugurated December 18th, 1871. Under his wise administration and that of his successors Paraguay recuperated from past calamities and gradually took its place among the nations of America. In 1908 President Benigno Ferreiro completed his term of office and Don Emil G. Navero succeeded him. On June 19th, 1912, Sr.



DON EDWARD SCHAEERER
President of Paraguay

Edward Schaeerer was elected president of the republic and Sr. Peter Robadilla vice-president.

The constitution of Paraguay provides for a republican form of government, with the usual division of legislative, executive, and judicial authorities. The national congress is composed of the senate and the chamber of deputies, both elected by direct popular vote. The president and vice-president of the republic are elected by electors, chosen for that purpose, for a term of four years. The president is assisted by a cabinet of five ministers and during recess of congress by a standing committee composed of 2 senators and 4 depu-

ties whom the president consults on all matters pertaining to congress.

STATISTICAL REPORT.

Paraguay has an area of 171,815 square miles, equal to that of the states of California and Maine together, and it has a population of about 800,000, or 4.6 per square mile. For administrative purposes the country is divided into 84 departments, each under a Jefe politico appointed by the president for a term of four years. Asuncion, the capital, has a population of 55,000. Other towns of some importance are Villa Rica with 30,000 inhabitants, Concepcion with 25,000, Encarnacion with 8500, San Estanislao and Caazapa with 7000 each.

The only railway in Paraguay is that of the Paraguay Central Railway Company which runs from Asuncion to Pirapo, a distance of 155 miles. This line will be continued to the Argentine frontier and there connect with a railroad from Buenos Aires so as to establish direct communication between the two capitals which are about 650 miles apart.

Paraguay with its subtropical climate considerably modified and made healthful by several mountain chains and an extensive hydrographic system, produces the most of the products of the tropical and temperate zones successfully. The extensive plain of the Gran Chaco affords excellent pasture for cattle and the slopes of the mountains of the country are covered with luxuriant forests where many useful woods and medicinal plants are to be found. Oranges, tobacco, coffee, rice, cotton, manioc, and sugar are grown and exported. The most important articles of export, however, are beef products, the valuable quebracho wood—used extensively for tanning and also as railway ties—and the Paraguay tea called mate which is mostly exported to the other South American republics where it is a popular beverage. Mate of which 17,600,000 pounds are gathered annually, is

the principal crop of Paraguay; about one-half of this quantity is exported. The plant is the *Ilex Paraguayensis* which grows wild in immense tracts in the northern and eastern sections of the republic. The leaves are gathered and furnish the aromatic mate tea.

The balance of trade for years was against the country, the imports having been of greater value than the exports. But this adverse condition was steadily improved so that in 1909 the trade balance was in favor of the republic, as the following statement shows:

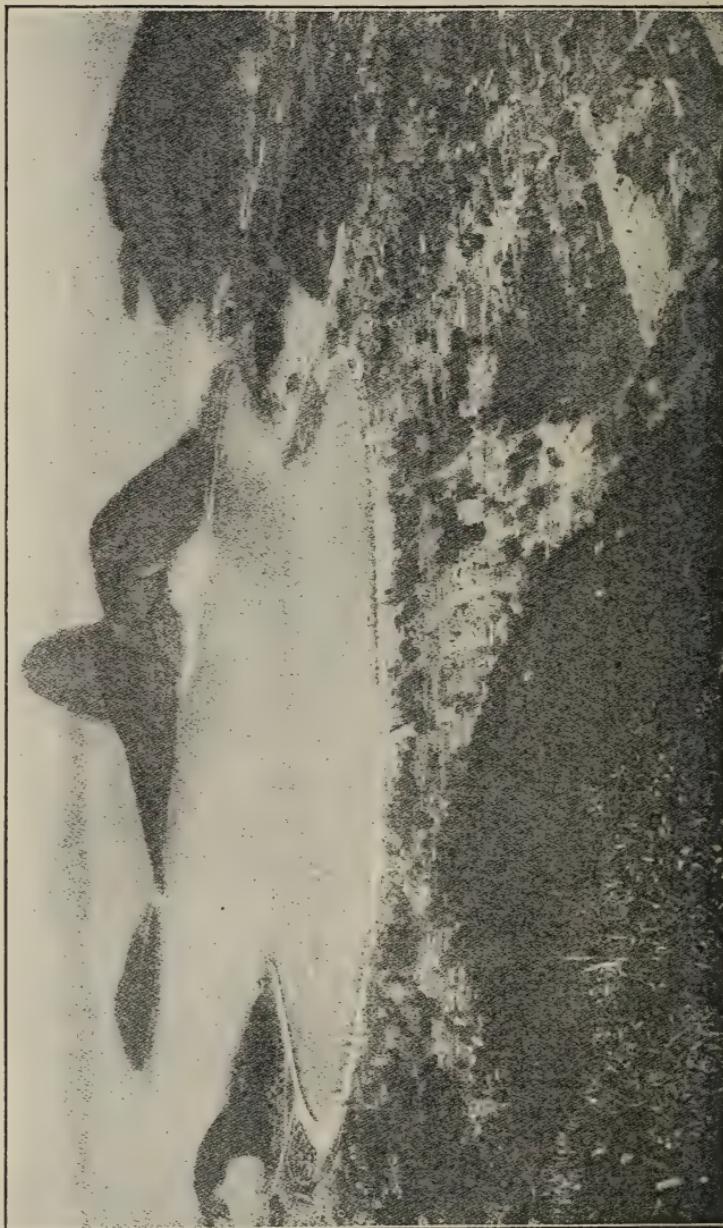
	IMPORTS	EXPORTS
1909	\$3,655,366	\$4,982,814

In 1910 the Paraguayan imports, by countries of origin, and the exports to those countries were as follows:

COUNTRIES	IMPORTS	EXPORTS
United Kingdom	\$2,625,490	\$ 15,213
Germany	1,111,714	881,319
Argentina	678,956	2,783,693
Spain	366,189	309,055
Italy	335,620	84,177
United States	310,540
France	289,342	24,852
Belgium	149,738	12,024
Austria-Hungary	146,758
Uruguay	44,712	518,056
Brazil	42,262	155,086
Other Countries	151,467	5,590
Total	\$6,252,489	\$4,789,065

Paraguay exports the following articles: Dried meat, beef extract, quebracho extract, hides, horns, oranges, tangerines, timber, quebracho, tobacco, yerba mate.

Paraguay is eminently an agricultural country, and there is scarcely a product of the tropical and subtropical zones that can not be cultivated to advantage within its borders. The great Chaco region is ideal for the growing of cotton of a long fiber and superior quality, while that favored section contains also a vast amount of forestal wealth and stock-producing possibilities. Prof. Fiebrig, director of the agricultural farm of the government of Paraguay recently made a report of a trip of investigation to Villarica, in which the farms and farming methods of foreigners and natives were examined and special note made of the cultivation of yerba mate, or Paraguayan tea, on the plantation of Sr. Mahaux who is engaged in the growing of this shrub in the neighborhood of Villarica on a large scale. The questions of proper soil and climatic conditions were taken up, and it was shown by the experiences of two persons now occupied in its cultivation that neither water-soaked nor acid lands rich in humus are suitable for growing yerba mate.



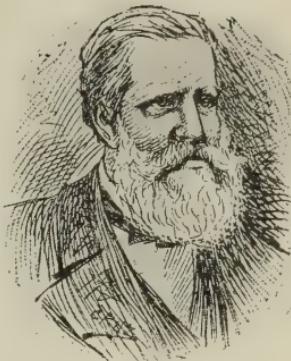
PANORAMA OF PART OF RIO DE JANEIRO

and the entrance to its beautiful harbor. "Almost to the foot of the great cliff on which we stood the white city gleamed and yet so far away that its snowy houses seemed but toys, while out beyond it was the picture of the bay with its many emerald islets."

BRAZIL, 1839 to 1911: MONARCHY UNTIL 1889.

We concluded the revolutionary period of Brazil when a regency was in charge of the government during the minority of the son of Dom Pedro I., who was heir to the throne. The regency continued in the government nine years, until the year 1840, when the young emperor became of age and was crowned, receiving the title Dom Pedro II. Among the leading facts of his mild and beneficent reign are the war of the triple alliance with Paraguay, in which Brazil was a principal factor; the opening of all the rivers to foreign trade; the giving of subsidies to steamship companies; and the gradual abolition of slavery. At the close of Brazil's colonial times we stated the fact that African slaves constituted a very large per cent of the population. Their setting free began in 1871 when the law was passed which provided that after the date of the bill all children of slave women should be considered free. The same law provided also for an emancipation fund out of which the ransom of slaves owned by private persons was to be paid. In 1888 the remainder of the slaves, estimated at 500,000, were set free, but these without compensations to owners. Thus Brazil emancipated her slaves without a war.

When Dom Pedro II. had reigned nearly half a century, namely from 1840 to 1889, the people of Brazil resolved to change the monarchical form of government to a republican.



DOM PEDRO II.

A high-minded and liberal ruler

When in 1889 the Brazilians wanted a republican form of government, he chose rather to abdicate the throne than have his countrymen shed their blood. He died in Paris in 1891

This fundamental change was likewise accomplished without bloodshed; for November 15th, 1889, the emperor abdicated and the republic was proclaimed.

United States of Brazil, 1889 to 1911.

Marshal Theodoro Da Fonseco was placed at the head of the provisional government which was to continue in office until a constituent congress had formulated a constitution. The new republic was called United States of Brazil and Da Fonseca was elected its first constitutional president and inaugurated February 24th, 1891. The president, however, resigned his position November 23rd of the same year in favor of Vice-president Florian Peixoto. After him the presidential chair was occupied by Dr. Prudente de Moracs Barros in 1894, by Dr. Campos Salles in 1896, by Dr. Rodrigues Aloes in 1902, by Dr. Nilo Pecanha in June 1909, and by the present incumbent, Marshal Hermes da Fonseca, who was inaugurated November 15th, 1910.

By virtue of the constitution the republic of the United States of Brazil is a federal union of states, republican and representative. Brazil is thus one of the three federal republics of South America, the other two being the United States of Venezuela and the Argentine Republic. The federal Brazilian government is composed of the legislative, executive, and judicial branches, the former branch consisting of two houses, the senate and the chamber of deputies. The senate has 63 members, 3 for each state and 3 for the federal district, elected by direct vote of the people and for a term of nine years; but the senate is renewed by thirds every three years. The chamber of deputies has 212 members, elected in the same manner as the senators and in proportion of one for every 70,000 inhabitants. No state is, however, represented by fewer than four deputies. — The executive power is vested in a president, assisted by a cabinet of seven ministers. The president and vice-president are elected for a term of four

years by direct vote and may not be re-elected for a term immediately following their own. All male citizens over 21 years of age are entitled to vote. The salary of the president is 120,000 milreis, equivalent to about 36,000 gold, per annum.— The judicial power is vested in the national supreme court which is composed of 15 justices who are appointed by the president with the consent and advise of the senate, and in federal judges in all the states, who are appointed upon recommendations of the supreme court. All these judges hold office for life.

The Brazilian union is composed of 20 states, one territory, and one federal district in which Rio de Janeiro, the capital, is situated. The states are entirely autonomous in their interior administration, even to the extent of levying their own export duties and as regards stamp taxes, postal rates etc. The federal district, with the capital, is governed by a prefect who is appointed by the president and assisted by a municipal council elected by the people.

Part of the national territory ordinarily known as the Acre country, was acquired from Bolivia by the treaty of November 17th, 1903, for the sum of \$10,000,000. The republic of Brazil is the largest country of South and North America; for it extends over an area of 3,218,130 square miles which is 191,341 square miles larger than the United States of North America proper. Including Alaska into the United States our republic is about 400,000 square miles larger than Brazil.

Though Brazil lies entirely in the tropical and temperate zones, yet the climate of a considerable area of the country is modified by numerous high table-lands and mountain chains and by its vast and extensive hydrographic system. The extensive fertile plains produce all of the fruits of the tropics and contain luxuriant and almost impenetrable forests. In many portions of the Amazon the great trees destroy each other by their close crowding. In the province of Maranhao

the roots of plants stretch out with such firmness and such abundance from the shores of pools that the pedestrian may be walking on them over the water supposing himself to be on solid ground. The vegetation of the coast is principally mangrove whose seeds in this moist warmth begin to sprout before they drop to the ground. Trees which are split in the neighborhood of Rio de Janeiro, often send forth shoots and branches immediately. Further back from the coast are graceful palms of many kinds. Further inland still is an immense profuseness of vegetation, awkwardly crowded together and grotesquely intertwined and crossed. Cocoa trees, the vanilla, different kinds of pepper, cinnamon, and cassia abound. In the more remote interior and on the vast pampas, or southern prairies, solitary myrtles, numerous varieties of pleasing fruits, and now and then a cactus add variety. The forests abound in useful and ornamental trees, while the cocoa tree thrives on the seashore and supplies an important item of commerce. Other trees are the brazil wood which is a valuable timber and yields a fine dye, the rosewood tree, the trumpet tree, the laurel, the soap tree, the palm, and the India-rubber tree, or hevea, which is tapped every day and will be described a little later. Other important products of the soil are coffee, cotton, sugar-cane, tobacco, mate, oranges, manioc, rice, maize, and spices. The forest wealth of Brazil has as yet hardly been tapped and it is said that no other region in the world contains such a variety of useful and ornamental timber and medicinal plants. Large quantities of precious metals and minerals are found and Brazil is one of the few countries which possess diamond mines.

Of animal life there is an unparalleled variety and abundance. The plains are covered with horses and horned cattle, many of them wild; and large flocks of goats and sheep as well as immense herds of swine are pasturing there. Cumas, jaguars, deer, several native animals of the wolf family, sloths, opossums, porcupines, armadillos, peccaries, capibaras,

monkeys of different kinds, and vampire bats are in great abundance. Of serpents there are anacondas and other pythons, rattlesnakes, jararacas, and many others. Alligators and turtles abound in the Amazon and its tributaries, while tortoises and terrapin infest the land. The Brazilian birds of prey are vultures, condors, eagles, hawks, and owls, while the birds of beautiful plumage are in infinite variety, including many species of humming birds, parrots, cockatoos, and the brilliant toucan. Then there are the oriole, the uraponga, and the rhea, a kind of ostrich. Of fine plumaged wading birds there are ducks, geese, pelicans etc. The insects are beautiful, brilliant, and abundant, and the manifold butterflies are dazzling in colors. While enormous spiders abound and the scorpions and centipedes are formidable, the bees are stingless. In the rivers fishes are found in great abundance.

STATISTICAL REPORT.

Brazil, according to the last published census, has a population of 20,515,000, equal to 6.4 per square mile, as against 30.9 per square mile in the United States. The language of the Brazilians is the Portuguese. The principal cities with their estimated populations are Rio de Janeiro 1,000,000; Sao Paulo (Peruambuco) 400,000, Ricifé (Pernambuco) 150,000, Sao Salvador (Bahia) 350,000, Belem (Para) 200,000, Porto Alegre 100,000, Ceara 50,000, Manaos 50,000, Santos 41,000.

Registrations of *immigrants* landing in Brazilian ports during the year 1909 show a total for the whole country of 85,410. Southern Brazil continues to draw the larger portion of immigrants; for 92 per cent of the total registration was in the southern ports. In the south of the country are large prosperous German colonies that were established years ago. The immigrants arriving in recent years are, as those who come to Argentina and Chile, mostly from Spain and Italy. Of the total number entering Brazil in 1909, 23,895 placed

themselves at the disposition of the federal government at whose expense they were housed at five points of entry, sent to various colonies and installed on small plots of land, mostly in the states of Rio de Janeiro, Sao Paulo, Minas Geraes, and Parana. Other immigrants were transported and placed on parcels of land by the different states.

The total *foreign trade* of Brazil for the year 1911 was 1,799,488,186 milreis paper, of which total 795,563,450 milreis were imports and 1,003,924,736 milreis were exports.

The Brazilian paper milreis has the value of 32.4 cents United States gold. At this rate the foreign commerce for the years 1910 and 1911 was as follows:

	IMPORTS	EXPORTS	TOTAL
1910	\$237,291,658	\$304,369,957	\$535,661,615
1911	257,762,557	325,271,614	583,034,171

In 1911 the imports by principal countries of origin, and the exports to those countries were as follows:

COUNTRIES	IMPORTS	EXPORTS
United Kingdom	\$74,695,592	\$48,920,995
Germany	43,180,830	47,212,339
United States	34,602,757	115,855,767
France	22,744,839	25,739,496
Argentina	19,594,486	12,796,252
Portugal	13,832,400	1,487,288
Belgium	10,715,701	7,796,618
Italy	9,382,106	3,747,560
Uruguay	5,412,582	4,444,054
Austria-Hungary	3,777,460	16,759,363
Switzerland	3,455,559
India	2,985,952
Newfoundland	2,808,829
Spain	2,376,344	1,676,291
Norway	2,182,390
Netherlands	1,650,752	26,447,406
Other Countries	4,354,078	12,391,185
Total	\$257,762,557	\$325,271,614

The following table gives the amounts and values of a number of principal articles of export for the year 1911:

ARTICLES	QUANTITIES	VALUES
Coffee	11,257,802 bags	\$196,515,379
Rubber	36,547 tons	73,352,116
Mate	61,834 tons	9,640,346
Hides	31,828 tons	8,791,090
Cocoa	39,994 tons	7,993,435
Tobacco	18,489 tons	4,703,346
Carnauba wax	3,214 tons	2,477,540
Gold in bars	4,290 kilos	2,275,440
Cotton	14,647 tons	2,109,436
Sugar	36,718 tons	1,986,836
Bran	54,109 tons	1,796,392
Brazil nuts	392,076 bu.	1,281,053
Monazite sand	3,687 tons	954,870
Manganese ore	173,941 tons	876,869

Each bag of coffee weighs 60 kilos or 132.27 pounds; the tons are metric tons. Coffee, the principal export article of Brazil, in 1911 went to the following countries:

COUNTRIES	BAGS	VALUES
United States	4,444,973	\$77,512,293
Germany	1,603,991	31,752,936
Netherlands	1,413,412	25,763,209
Austria-Hungary	967,679	16,600,849
France	874,928	15,092,424
United Kingdom	270,114	4,692,373
Argentina	225,187	3,823,754
Italy	204,933	3,481,518
Other Countries	1,052,587	17,816,020
Total	11,257,802	\$196,515,379

Agriculture holds the first place among the productive occupations of Brazil, and the industries are related more closely to the agricultural than to other elemental factors of the country. The republic, combining, as it does, one of the most immense tropical areas of the world with its interior,



COFFEE CULTURE IN BRAZIL

tropical plateaus and with its fertile temperate areas in the southern states, has always relied upon field and forest as the great sources of its wealth. Of the principal products entering the market; namely, rice, cotton, sugar, tobacco, Paraguay tea or mate, mandioca, cacao, coffee, and rubber, the last two form the great export staples of Brazil.

Coffee. The story goes that a Portuguese, Jao Alberto

Castello Branco, in 1760 planted a coffee bush in Rio de Janeiro. It was not, however, until 50 years had elapsed that Brazil began to be famous as one of the coffee producing countries and, thanks to its climate, soil, and similar factors, that magnificent country has become the great coffee producer of the world.

The plant flourishes best in well-watered regions, in a subtropical climate, at an elevation of 1500 to 5000 feet, and in a rich soil. All these elements Brazil has to perfection, especially in the four states of Sao Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, Espirito Santo, and Minas Geraes whose combined areas cover about one-eighth of the vast domain of the republic. From there the world receives at least four-fifths of its coffee.

Healthy coffee trees produce from 12 to 16 buds which have, when they bloom, an exquisite perfume. No more beautiful sight can be imagined than a great coffee plantation during the flowering season. The trees cover hills and table-lands, and the air is laden with a delicate fragrance. Two days after full blossom the ground is covered with white flowers, and from the small stems of the trees groups of seeds issue which at first are yellow and to the touch coarse. When these ripen they take on color until they become the coffee berries which look like very dark red berries. In each ripe berry there are two seeds or beans, convex on one side and flat on the other, each bean enclosed by a delicate silver colored skin, the two beans by a tough membrane and this by a pulp. In Brazil coffee trees blossom most fully in October, although they continue to flower more or less during several months. The crop is harvested in May or June when each tree yields four or five pounds of coffee; some yield more. When the berry is ripe all other work on the plantation is dropped and every available person engages in the harvest. Brazil's average crop may be estimated at 12,000,000 sacks (each sack weighing 133 pounds). These coffee regions of Brazil, however, are representative of the highest agricultural develop-

ment and compare favorably with the wheat and corn fields of Argentina or with similar crop areas elsewhere. The other great product of the country is rubber.

India Rubber, as it is generally called in text-books and official reports, is a native of Brazil and grows wild in its forests. Although efforts at cultivation have been successful and although the rubber product cultivated on modern plantations is cleaner and yields a higher graded substance, yet by far the greatest quantity of rubber exported from the country is gathered from the forests of the northern interior, just as nature produces it, and the entire care of the rubber gatherers has been given only to obtaining the juice from the native rubber trees.

The Brazilian native speaks of barracha when he refers to the product of the hevea, the rubber tree par excellence. The hevea is indigenous to the region of the river Amazon and to the contiguous areas of Peru, Bolivia, Ecuador, Colombia, and Venezuela. The hevea being of slow growth and long life, becomes a large tree, having been found 12 feet in circumference. It requires low, rich, deep soil and abundant moisture and is not found in clumps, but rather scattered through the tropical forest. Other rubber trees are the Manihot and the Castilloa, while the shrub Guahule which is a native of Mexico, contains in each branch a pure rubber that can be used for every purpose to which the milk of the hevea is applied.

Rubber is the cream or milk from the juice of these trees and shrubs. It is not the sap, as it plays a distinct part from the sap in nature's laboratory. Mixed with sulphur in proper proportions it produces the substance with which we are most familiar, the rubber of commerce. This retains the valuable properties of the pure article, at the same time it becomes easier to handle in manufacturing.

Gathering rubber is largely a matter of native skill, the

tree being tapped, the cream removed and coagulated, and this raw rubber is prepared for market. After the crude rubber reaches the factory it is manipulated into the form required, by the admixture of different amounts of sulphur and by the application of different degrees of heat. Brazil controls the India Rubber production and trade, as the quantities exported from the ports of Ceara, Para, and Manaos are about one-half of the world's supply; on these depends the price for the raw material in the consuming markets. The United States, Great Britain, Germany, France, and Belgium are the important buying countries.

The cacao cultivation is carried on on about 40,000 acres with 10,000,000 trees in bearing. The average yield of each tree in its maturity is about six pounds of dried beans each season under present conditions. One estate reports a yield of 30 pounds per tree under favorable conditions. From the state of Bahia comes fully 80 per cent of the cacao produced in Brazil whose exportable surplus in 1908 amounted to nearly 70,000,000 pounds, or over one-fifth of the world's supply.

Besides the product of the plantations and the forests of magnificent Brazil the country has rich mineral deposits which will no doubt in the near future be much better exploited than they have been in the past, because the railroad system of the country is being extended and will afford an outlet to the manufacturing cities and to the seacoast. Gold, diamonds, manganese, and monazite are found in paying quantities and are already among the most staple and substantial exports of the country. A quicksilver mine was recently discovered in the state of Minas Geraes. Brazil is one of the few countries possessing mines of quicksilver and diamonds.

We will close this lengthy report with a glance at *the railways and interior waterways* of Brazil. The railroads were originally built with the great purpose in view of bringing the products of a contributing interior to the nearest sea-

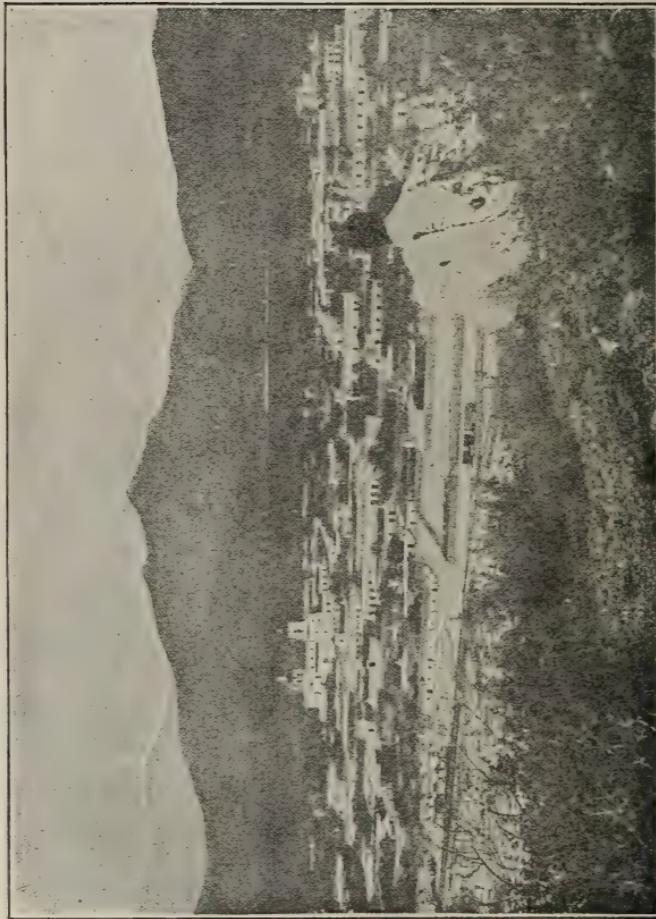
port and of distributing to this interior the merchandise brought in from abroad. Recently, however, the republic has felt the great need of connecting these various systems by interior railroads running north and south, both to afford interior communication independent of the ocean and to stimulate internal commerce and settlements. The total length of railways in Brazil at the beginning of 1912 was 13,750 miles, and new lines are in construction and are being planned.

That magnificent republic has been favored by Providence with a most wonderful system of fluvial arteries. Brazil has within its territory not only the largest river system, both in area and in length, in the world, but has also perhaps more navigable rivers than any other country. The mighty Amazon, 4000 miles long, is navigable almost in its entire length, not simply in Brazil, but in Peru also where it is called Maranyon and where it originates. Moreover most of the Amazon's very lengthy tributaries of which there are seven in Brazil, each of which 1000 miles long, are navigable, while in the southern section of the country the Paraguay, Uruguay, and Parana rivers are all navigated. The republic has over 10,000 miles of navigable waterways which are open to river steamers and ocean going vessels and, in addition to these, 20,000 miles which are navigable for light-draft and flat-bottom boats only. Several steamship companies maintain a regular service between points on these rivers, plying on the Amazon, Negro, Purus, Madeira, Tapajos, Para, Jurua, and Javary. Direct communication is maintained between North American and European ports and Para (Belem) near the mouth of the Amazon, Manaos which lies 1000 miles up the river, and even Iquitos in Peru which is still 1300 miles further inland.

The favorable geographical position of Brazil in the center of South America, places it in touch with all the republics of that continent, except Chile, and makes it accessible from the United States, Europe, and Africa. With a coastline on the

Atlantic Ocean of more than 5000 miles Brazil possesses a number of excellent bays and harbors on which are situated 14 seaports. The port of Rio de Janeiro has the largest harbor and it is world-renowned for its scenic beauty.

The government is very much interested in the construction of railways and in the traffic of river navigation. The budget of Brazil for 1913 appropriates, in round numbers, the sum of \$65,000,000 for the use of public works, a very large part of which will be used in railway construction carried on in accordance with a general plan to meet the special needs of the different states of the republic. One of the lines to be built in southern Brazil, which will have an approximate length of 227 kilometers, will open up a rich mining and agricultural section of the country. Another of the projected lines will start from a point near Manaos on the Amazon and will extend up the Negro river to the Venezuelan frontier. These lines and many others which are in project will entail costs of \$21,000, \$25,000, and \$30,000 per kilometer (1 kilometer is equal to 0.62,137 mile, or to a little less than $\frac{7}{11}$ of a mile).



OVERLOOKING THE OLD TOWN OF SANTA MARTA, COLOMBIA
Santa Marta was founded in 1525. In 1830 Simon Bolivar waited here to embark for England, but died on the San Pedro estate, three miles from the city.

REPUBLIC OF COLOMBIA.

1831 to 1911.

The first two years of republican life were characterized by ardent endeavors to give the country a constitution. When Simon Bolivar, the honored hero and liberator, died December 17th, 1830, General Urdaneta, the vice-president, became acting president. The liberator's death did not bring the harmony between the contending factions, which he had desired. The discontentment with Urdaneta's government increased daily and assumed so great proportions as to endanger his position, though two juntas of eminent citizens wished to keep him in office. To satisfy the people Urdaneta allowed them more privileges. — Venezuela was also at this time urged to return to the Colombian Confederation, but neither at this time was the latter's commissioner received by the Venezuelan government. Bolivar's death had in Venezuela become a battle won for the partisans of separation who installed the first constituent congress in that country March 18th, 1831, and elected Paez president for four years. Also Ecuador strove to separate and to become absolutely independent. April, 1831, Urdaneta's enemies had gained so much power that he abdicated and left the country. It was said his services had been equal to those of the best officials of New Granada. The council of state entrusted the supreme power to Vice-president General Gaycedo.

Gaycedo's Administration.

The new acting president was not in a more favorable position than his predecessor had been. The military leaders as well as those of various political factions made demands, and demands of quite opposing character. To satisfy as many as possible Gaycedo called into his cabinet leaders of the dif-

ferent factions; however, no one was satisfied with the cabinet. Nevertheless with universal applause was the order received which called a national congress for November 15th that should give the country a constitution, appoint the high officials, and primarily bring order into the public affairs. Gaycedo proceeded prudently, but his prudence was called weakness by men of various parties. Some military officers planned to overthrow the government and establish a state of dictatorship. But the president in a meeting called, laid articles of agreement before them which they were asked to sign; many signed. The rest, some 150, received their passports and were obliged to leave the country. Thereupon Gaycedo handed in his resignation which, however, the state council unanimously refused to accept.

On the isthmus of Panama attempts to separate that department from the rest of the country were already made in those early years. Espinar who had been governor of the isthmus, had attempted it and now his successor, Colonel Alzuru, pursued the same object by flattering the natives, the negroes, and the general populace. As it was evident Alzuru would revolt Herrera was ordered to subdue him. The former prepared for an attack, but was defeated in battle August 27th, 1831, was captured and, in company with a few companions, shot, paying for the crimes he had committed.

The constituent convention whose opening date had been advanced one month, namely to October 15th, was by all looked for as the salvation out of the political difficulties. For the country was in a sore plight, not simply on account of the general unrest, but also because various provinces protested openly against departmental divisions. Florez of Quito demanded the annexation of the Cauca territory to Ecuador, and the central towns got ready to defend the territorial rights of New Granada. When the eighty-nine deputies who were elected to the convention had assembled, Gaycedo delivered

his message and again he offered his resignation which, however, was not yet accepted. In one of the first sessions several propositions were presented for discussion, one concerning the organization of New Granada as an independent state, Venezuela and Ecuador having already left the old confederation, and another concerning the suppression of departmental divisions and of general districts. November 10th the following bill was adopted: "The provinces of the center of the Colombian Confederation constitute a state with the name of New Granada; this present convention shall give it a constitution and shall organize the government." November 29th Gaycedo presented his resignation once more, he was then relieved, and General J. M. Obando elected in his stead. The convention had secretly discussed a bill to the effect of wiping from the military lists all the names of those leaders and officers who had taken part in the revolution of 1830 and of banishing them. This bill was adopted and was sanctioned by President Obando. 318 names of officers were wiped from the lists of whom 230 went into exile. The convention took great interest in organizing the government and paid special attention to financial affairs and to the suspension of payments of interest on the old Colombian debt, while arrangements with Venezuela and Ecuador were being adjusted.

The government was authorized to recognize Ecuador as an independent state; but both states should respect their former limits and should arrange the division of the debt of the old confederation. This resolution, however, was not recognized by Florez of Quito who had already proclaimed the incorporation of the Cauca province into his state.

February 29th, 1832, the constitution of the republic of New Granada was adopted. Thus Bolivar's Colombia disappeared; her memories, however, do not perish. Her life was short, but her glories are immortal. As for her three daughters, they were emancipated under the shadow of her flag and they are free. As they separate they tear the flag

of Colombia asunder and each one carries a piece away to wear it as gala attire in her new republican life.

1. REPUBLIC OF NEW GRANADA, 1832 to 1858.

By this name the country was known 26 years. Of the eight administrations of these years we shall record only those which rendered the country the best services and of the very many revolutions only a few to show how the Granadians could fight.

The country was divided into 15 provinces. The president was to be elected for four years, one vice-president for the first two and another for the second two years. The executive powers were restricted by a state council whose members congress elected. The constitution further prescribed that certain high offices could be filled only by Granadians. In the judicial branch of administration the time of service was limited to four years, while formerly the judges had been immovable as long as they served well. The convention elected General Santander president and Dr. Marquez first vice-president.

President Santander's administration sent commissioners to Ecuador to negotiate in the matter of boundary lines. As no agreement could be reached both sides appealed to arms. Ex-President J. M. Obando marched at the head of 1500 men against the town of Pasto in the Cauca territory which Ecuador had annexed. Owing to the inefficiency of various Ecuadorian forces and to the inexperience of the commanders Obando took Pasto. The news of this event produced deep impressions in Quito and the congress of Ecuador accepted the peace proposals which Obando offered. A treaty of peace, of good friendship and alliance was signed December 8th, 1832, by which the Cauca territory returned to New Granada.

President Santander paid attention to primary education, opening schools for the instruction of 20,000 boys and one school for girls who had been sadly neglected in bygone years.

To meet the expenses of instruction, including those of three universities, the income from minor convents which had been closed by law, was applied. — The three republics which had constituted the Colombian Confederation, consented to the division and payment of its debt. The adjustment made New Granada pay 50 per cent, Venezuela 28½ per cent, and Ecuador 21½ per cent of the debt. When years later the debt was cancelled the payments made by New Granada amounted to the sum of \$102,948,737. So much the country paid for its independence in money, and how much had it paid in blood?— Dr. F. Soto was appointed to regulate the financial system of the republic and owing to his activity and proverbial honesty he brought order out of chaos readily, eradicating many of the complications that had been inherited from the confederation government. The public income of the year 1834 amounted to \$2,327,310 and the expenditures to \$2,517,700, one-half of which was absorbed by the standing army and navy. — In 1836 a census was taken which showed that the country had a population of 1,686,038, being an increase of 460,440 persons in ten years.

In *the years 1840 to 1841* New Granada was full of revolutions. General Herran fought ten pitched battles, twelve leaders strove for the supreme power, and the capture of Bogata, the capital, was scarcely prevented. A writer gives an aspect of the country of those years in the following words: "When the friars who are as brave as fanatical for their cause, saw many of their colleagues suspended from gallows, their homes burned, their cemeteries desolated, their families led away with the heterogeneous crowd as war booty, they had to take these calamities unconditionally, just as they were. And soon the war of waylaying followed, the war of ambush in which anyone offered his life under the condition of killing two, — a scandalous war in which they fought without fear, in which they died without honor. The legitimate chiefs gave the war such a character that the revolutionists of yesterday

were not rebels today; for they had to defend their home-steads which were laid waste in the name of the law."

In the year 1842 the government of Venezuela made the friendly reclamation to the New Granadian government to deliver the remains of Simon Bolivar which, according to the great liberator's last will, should rest in Caracas, his native city. Naturally the Granadian government had to consent to it and it commissioned the governor of Santa Marta, General J. Posada, to deliver the sacred deposit to the Venezuelan commissioners. The solemn act of exhumation and delivery took place November 20th, 1842. On this occasion General Posada held a short speech whose closing sentences run thus: "Take, sirs, the precious treasure for which you have come. Carry it away to that land of yours privileged by chance; for know ye and may your people know that solely the high regard which the Granadian government and people entertain for the last wish of the exalted hero is the only power which is able to cause New Granada to make this sacrifice." November 22nd the vessel which bore the remains of great Bolivar, weighed anchor escorted by war vessels of Great Britain, France, Holland, and Denmark which took gallant part in that first act of apotheosis of the deliverer of half a continent.

Administration of Thomas C. Mosquera, 1845 to 1849.

Sr. Mosquera's administration was perhaps the most liberal and progressive the country has had, for scarcely a month passed by during the same in which not a reform was initiated. The forests of the Magdalena were awakened by the whistles of the steamers. The isthmus of Panama trembled under the blows of the hammers which burst the rocks to make a passage for the railroad. The army, reduced to the smallest number possible, exchanged the arms of war for the tools of peace, making roads which industry needed. The disorder of the systems of money, weights, and measures had to make way to the decimal system. The military school prospered and out

of its halls the first engineers the nation ever had came forth. The students pursued their studies in all branches of practical knowledge, there not being a single object of general interest to which they did not direct their attention and study. At the close of his administration in 1849 President Mosquera issued the decree of general pardon which permitted the political exiles to return to their native land.

In 1850, during *President Lopez'* administration, a change was brought about in the disbursement of taxes. Instead of centralizing them in the capital, as heretofore, they were left in the localities where they had been collected. This movement was a departure towards federal ways which had been favored since the time of independence by some patriots, but opposed by a large majority. To all the provinces and municipalities it was pleasing to handle their own taxes; for thus they could bring proper life into their local affairs. They were able to attend to their home improvements, to the development of their own public interests without having to depend on officials who were more or less distant and often thought more of their personal interests than of the welfare of the people. — The Lopez government conceded foreign vessels the permission of navigating the interior waters. New Granada claims the high honor of being the first among the nations to open her rivers and lakes to all civilized nations without restriction. — In addition to former *church regulations*, laws were enacted in 1853 which established the absolute separation of church and state, which allowed civil matrimony, and which conceded to the town boards the cemeteries as their properties.

In 1854, when *J. M. Obando* was *president* the second time, a sad revolution broke out. General Meno placed himself at the head of the discontented elements, had congress dissolved, the president and his cabinet imprisoned, and made himself dictator, casting the constitution aside and making his own will supreme. The revolution spread throughout the country, battles were fought in which blood in currents flowed,

and only after horrible struggles were the Constitutionalists able to recapture the capital. Meno was captured and banished and found an abominable death in Mexico.

Administration of Mallarino, 1855 to 1858.

April 1st, 1855, M. M. Mallarino entered upon the presidential duties. To appease the hateful sentiments which had wrought so much evil in bygone years, and to strengthen the peaceful relations, he called members of the various contending parties to fill cabinet offices. From the beginning he introduced strict economy into the public expenditures and dedicated himself with the secretary of that department to the rearrangement of the tax affairs and to the clearing up of all that pertained to the public debt. For this had, through the many political changes of the past years, become something of a mystery by which those who were initiated in it grew rich and ruined the nation. During two years of this administration there was a surplus of \$327,756 in the treasury which, however, did not cover the deficit caused by the war of 1854. The good effect of the reorganization of the tax affairs and the order and clearness infused into all the arteries of the public treasury, made themselves distinctly felt and continued to exert a wholesome influence even during the administrations that followed.

In 1856 and 1857 a trial of a federal government was made by creating the states of Panama and Santander. For the following year New Granada was governed in an abnormal fashion; for one section, of course by far the larger, was governed in a unitary way, while in the other section a federal regime was observed. The public peace, however, was not disturbed.

2. THE GRANADIAN CONFEDERATION, 1858 to 1886.

The federal way of government was in the following administration applied to the whole country, and it continued 28 years.

Presidency of M. Espina, 1858 to 1861.

April 1st, 1858 Dr. Mariano Espina took charge of the administration. Congress formulated a new constitution, a constitution which changed the unitary form of government to the federal form and reorganized the country. The republic of New Granada had been composed of 15 provinces, but now it was divided into eight states; to wit, Antioquia, Bolivar, Bogata, Cauca, Cundinamarca, Magdalena, Panama, and Santander, and it was named Granadian Confederation.

Two serious problems presented themselves at the very beginning of this administration; namely, certain claims of the United States of America and of Great Britain. The first was for a question known as El Melon and the second for the rights or pretensions of the Makintosh bondholders. Both were regulated, the one by the Herran-Cass treaty, the other by the agreement of 1858. Both were costly to the nation which once more had to lament the unjust maxim "Might makes right." The claim of the United States government was the most exacting; for it demanded indemnification for losses which North Americans had sustained in the town of Melon and of which they themselves had been the cause. The government laid claims to the island of Taboga, one of the best anchoring and watering places on the Pacific coast. The Granadian government indignantly rejected such a demand, saying that rather than yield "we shall appeal to the opinion of the civilized world and to the justice of the American people." Happily this protest was not in vain. The dignity of the weak may become a sting to the strong. Our American readers will note that we give the views of a Granadian historian.

The congress of 1859 enacted laws which did not strike the fancy of many. The election law became a firebrand which a gust of wind might fan into a country-wide conflagration. While the liberals protested against this law and against the

appointment of certain state magistrates, the conservatives protested against the government of the state of Santander where liberal Dr. V. Herrera held the reins. And now revolutionizing begins anew. Soon the war demon is loose again and infuriates brother against brother; soon blood flows again in streams and moistens the soil of the common fatherland. We shall neither in this civil war follow the minor movements of the contending parties, nor relate the many combats and battles; we must, however, refer to a few of the struggles to show how the Granadians did fight. Early in the war the talented governor of Santander fell and many victims had to be mourned. The conservatives, however, were defeated and a calm set in. Alas! it was but an apparent calm, such as is felt before a great storm; for soon the storm broke loose and swept over the whole country, the liberals and conservatives entering into a singular struggle. Marquez and Corena invaded the state of Santander and there battled and fought and then engaged in the great carnage of Concepcion which took place August 29th, a battle unique in history, for all the leaders and officers and common soldiers were wounded more or less and 73 per cent of the combatants were disabled so as to fight no more.

The year 1860 dawned while clouds colored with blood hung in New Granada's political skies. The enraged passions of friends and enemies and the embittered relation of the national government to the governments of Santander and Cauca made the war general. May 8th General Mosquera, then governor of Cauca, published a decree in which he disavowed some of the laws enacted by the last congress and in which he declared the state of Cauca blameless for not obeying the federal government. President Espina sent troops against Mosquera which should bring his state back to obedience, while he himself marched with another force against the state of Santander. The latter campaign was bloody and short. The state forces were driven from position to posi-

tion by the federal troops and were totally defeated in the battle of Oratorio August 18th where the governor, his escort, and entire army were captured. Having completed his task President Espina returned to the capital with his army and the prisoners. In the state of Cauca, however, the federal troops suffered losses, were defeated, and the enemies of the government began to march from the south and the west, making the capital their objective point. Besides these troops, there were forces in all the other states, who fought, winning and losing battles, and struggled with a heroism equal to that of the emancipation wars. There were veteran leaders of either party and young officers who strove to carry their political views to triumph on the field of battle. Such a gloomy picture, heart-rending to patriots, the country presented December 31st when the setting sun's gleaming rays bid farewell to the parting year.

The new year, that of 1861, ushered in while the canons roared in the long and bloody battle of Tunja where the government's cause suffered new defeats. General Mosquera, the victor, being joined by other leaders, then marched on the capital. On this march he was confronted by a federal army and awful was the carnage of the ensuing battle. It was said by eyewitnesses that even in the great battles of the revolution it had not been seen that two enemies had taken bodily hold of one another with more boldness and fury. The best men of the country, true patriots and statesmen, leaders of thought and progress, sank down into death. The advantages of the battle were on the side of the government forces; however, they did not know how to utilize them; consequently the enemy pressed on.

July 18th Bogata was attacked. At one o'clock in the afternoon the battle's furies raged everywhere and at half past two the defeat of the government forces was complete and absolute. Almost all the civil officers as well as the military commanders were made prisoners, only a few being able

to escape the disaster. General Mosquera, the victor, ordered that a number of prominent men, both military and civil, be shot. Though the revolution had triumphed completely the war continued a whole year longer.

He became the head of the new government which recalled the acts of the last congress and declared the contracts of the vanquished government null and void. A convention was called and met that formulated a new constitution, a constitution which became the bulwark of liberty; for it granted free speech and abolished the death penalty. With the overthrow of the Espina administration and the adoption of a new constitution the country was not reorganized, but merely rebaptized, this time receiving the name *United States of Colombia*. What memories this name recalls! Before the magic name of Colombia the passions become calm and silent and the rightful ambitions gather strength, strength to serve the republic. The maxim of the Colombians is "There is never a cause against the fatherland."

3. REPUBLIC OF COLOMBIA, FROM 1886 ON.

Another political change and a more radical one was brought about August 4th, 1886, when the federal government and organization which had been in existence since 1858 were abolished and the unitary republican form of government was again accepted. Since then the country bears the name *Republic of Colombia*. The senate and the house of representatives, constituting the national congress, exercise the legislative power. The president is elected by congress for a term of four years and is assisted by six ministers or secretaries. The judiciary comprises a supreme court located at Bogata, a superior tribunal for each department, and a number of minor courts.

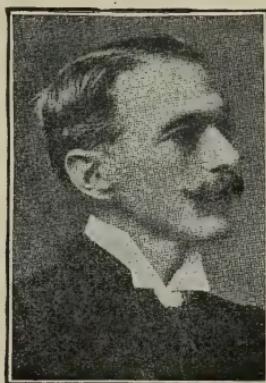
August 3rd, 1909, General Ramon G. Valencia was appointed by congress to fill the president's position who had resigned. July 15th, 1910, Sr. Charles E. Restrepo, the pres-

ent incumbent of the highest office, was duly elected president by the congress. President Restrepo is an able administrator, a devoted husband and father, and a warm friend of the United States. Under his management the Republic of Colombia is prosperous and will keep pace with the progress noticeable on the southern continent.

STATISTICAL REPORT.

The Republic of Colombia occupies the northwest portion of South America and covers an area of 438,436 square miles, equal to that of the states Louisiana, Texas, Kansas, and Arkansas combined. It has a population of 5,031,850, equal to 11.25 inhabitants per square mile.

Three chains of mountains which traverse the country from north to south produce a variety of climate and products ranging from temperate to tropical. Coffee, cacao, sugar-cane, tobacco, and bananas are successfully grown; vegetable ivory and rubber are products of the forests; and Panama hats are manufactured, in which trade the natives have acquired considerable skill. A man coming aboard our steamer offered Panama hats for sale at the rate of 2 to 200 pesos a piece. The extensive forests contain a number of valuable cabinet and other useful woods and medicinal plants. The mineral wealth of the country has been but little exploited, although its emerald mines furnish the world's chief supply of the gems. Gold is found in every state; silver, platinum, mercury, iron, lead, and coal abound. The Colombian output of platinum is only exceeded by that of Russia and the coal-fields are very extensive, but have been only little exploited on account of the difficulty of transportation. The emerald



CHAS. E. RESTREPO
President of Colombia

and the salt mines and the pearl fisheries are government monopolies. In general, the agricultural possibilities of coffee and rubber, two great staples of the country, have in 1910 been studied with care, and the mineral resources have received such practical attention as must soon prove that Colombia has in those respects very rich treasures.

The nine departments of the republic are subdivided into provinces and these into municipal districts. In the departments, executive authority is vested in governors appointed by the president of the republic who also appoints the district and provincial executive authorities. These appointments are in harmony with the unitary republican form of government and may give the president despotic power should adequate circumstances arise.

Bogata, the capital of Colombia, has 121,257 inhabitants, Medellin, 71,004, Barranquilla 48,907, Cartagena 36,632, Bucaramanga 19,755. In 1909 the railway was completed that connects Bogata with the Magdalena river at Girardot. This is the successful culmination of a prolonged effort to overcome the isolation of the capital which had been reached up to that time only by a difficult passage on mule back over the mountains. It brings Bogata several days nearer the rest of the world than heretofore. Nevertheless it is still difficult to reach the capital from the Caribbean Sea; for Girardot lies some 600 miles up the Magdalena river which is still the only available outlet from Bogata to the Atlantic coast, is impassable at several points on account of rapids, and has a bar at its mouth which impedes navigation. At Barranquilla, the seaport, the journey is commenced by rail to port Savanilla, a distance of 15 miles. From here a long journey is made on a river boat to La Dorada where again a train has to be boarded which takes the passengers to Puerto Beltran. Here a second river trip is commenced and continued to Girardot, whence the final stage of the journey is made by rail to Bogata. The total time consumed is about seven days.

The foreign trade of Colombia for the year 1911 amounted to \$40,484,762.92. The imports were \$18,108,863.36 and the exports \$22,375,899.56. As the imports of 1910 were \$17,385,039.67 and the exports \$17,625,152.74 there was an increase for the year 1911 over the preceding year of \$723,823.69 in imports and of \$4,750,746.82 in exports or a total increase of \$5,474,670.51.

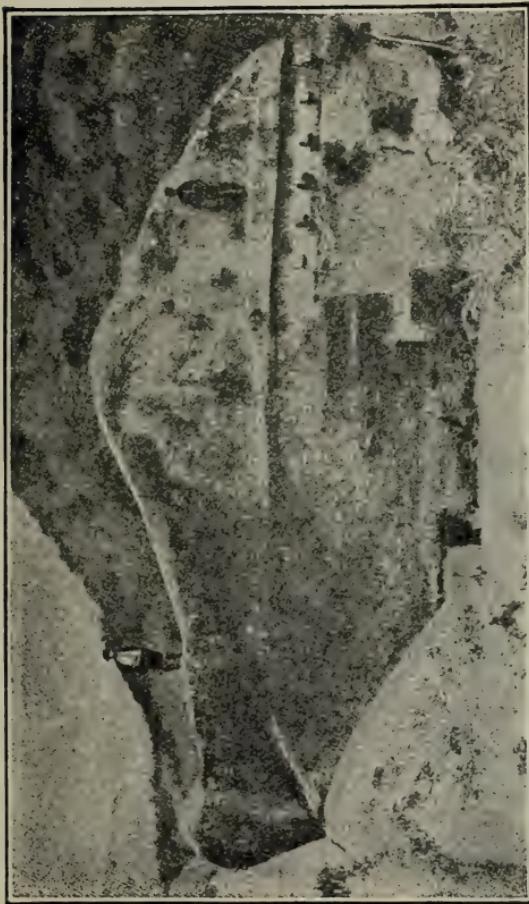
The imports for the year 1911, by countries of origin, and the exports to those countries were as follows:

COUNTRIES	IMPORTS	EXPORTS
United Kingdom	\$5,838,789.69	\$4,595,137.81
United States	5,404,975.96	12,248,995.38
Germany	3,242,634.90	1,910,353.75
France	1,718,747.80	769,189.48
Spain	397,733.47	119,654.55
Panama	31,790.68	42,777.25
Other Countries	1,474,190.86	2,688,591.34
Total	\$18,108,836.36	\$22,375,899.56

The principal exports may be grouped under the following classes:

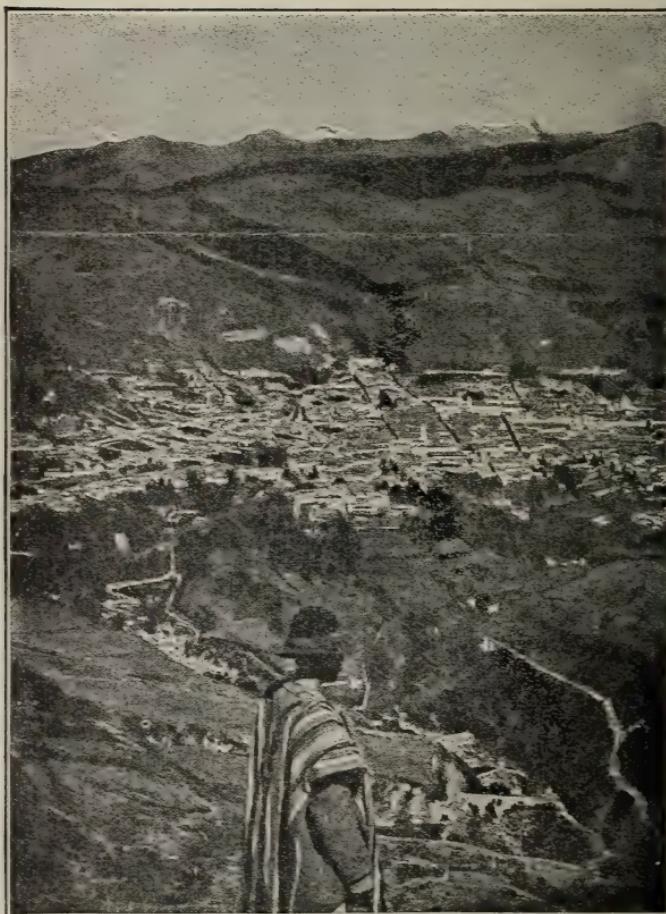
ARTICLES	QUANTITIES	VALUES
Coffee tons	37,900	\$9,475,448.89
Bananas "	109,786	2,172,000.00
Rubber "	577	900,886.90
Tagua "	10,900	739,419.00
Leaf tobacco "	3,911	332,935.00
Gold in bars kilos	7,683	2,454,834.83
Gold dust "	2,891	1,296,797.54
Platinum "	2,554	345,896.00
Cattle hides tons	36,167	1,779,770.21
Panama hats kilos	93,784	1,088,821.00

The value of Colombia as a producer of cacao, rubber, and bananas is well established, while cotton growing has been the subject of favorable experiments. However, the cultivation of bananas, wheat, and maize is regarded as most desirable at the present time, as from them returns are received the quickest. The republic with its tropical and temperate climates should be able to vie with any country in the nature of its products. — In general, the agricultural possibilities of coffee and rubber, two great staples of the country, have in 1910 been studied with care, and the mineral resources have received such practical attention as must soon prove that Colombia has in those respects very rich treasures. — More railways, of which the country has but 620 miles in different sections in operation, are much needed for the opening up of new and fertile regions in the agricultural and the mineral districts. It should be remarked also that considerable iron and steel manufactures were imported, principally from the United States to meet the demand of the increasing industrial activity. For the purpose of aiding national enterprises, modifications have been made in the customs tariff on articles for railway construction, for mills, agriculture etc., all of which have been placed on the free list. Also a reduction of duties has been affected on articles of common consumption.



AN ANDINE MONOLITH

180 feet in circumference, 25 feet high, and 27 feet broad



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF QUITO, ECUADOR

REPUBLIC OF ECUADOR.

1830 to 1911.

In the great revolutionary movements of Simon Bolivar and Sucre Ecuador became a part of the Colombian Confederation. This union Ecuador dissolved in the year 1830 when a constituent assembly met in Riobamba August 14th of that year and formulated a constitution by virtue of which that section of the confederation became a separate republic. General Florez was elected its first president and was succeeded in 1835 by the able statesman, Sr. Vicente Rocafuerte, under whose administration the country enjoyed peace and prosperity. In the year 1897 a constitution was adopted which made Ecuador a centralized or unitary republic and which is still in vogue. The national congress consists of the senate and chamber of deputies; senators are elected for a term of four years and deputies for a term of two years. The president is elected for four years by direct vote and cannot be re-elected until after the lapse of two terms. In addition to a cabinet of five ministers appointed by the president, there is a council of state presided over by the vice-president and made up of the members of the cabinet, the attorney-general, the chief justice of the court of accounts, the rector of the central university, two senators, two deputies, and two other citizens, the six last mentioned councilors being elected by congress. The supreme court located at Quito is the highest tribunal and consists of five justices who are elected by congress for six years. Also the superior courts holding sessions in the larger cities are all elected by congress for six years. The court of accounts is empowered to audit and investigate all public accounts and expenditures and its members, like those of the supreme and the superior courts, are likewise elected by congress for a term of six years.



GENERAL LEONIDAS PLAZA
President of Ecuador

General Eloy Alfaro was elected president for a term of four years, to begin January 1st, 1907. The present incumbent of the presidency, General Leonidas Plaza, entered upon his duties January, 1911.

As our narrative of Ecuador's history is brief we will give a somewhat complete *description* of the country. The republic of Ecuador is so called on account of its location beneath the equator. Towards the east the country is drained by the Amazon river which receives all the rivers that flow

down the eastern slopes of the Ecuadorian Andes, while the region west of them is drained chiefly by the Mira, the Esmeralda, and the Guayaquil. The last mentioned river is more valuable for navigation than any other stream on the whole west coast of the southern continent. Ecuador is traversed, nearly in a line of a meridian, by mountain ranges, alternating between union and separation which inclose, at great elevations, plateaus or table-lands. Among these last the most important are those of Cuenca, Hambato, and Quito, their respective heights above sea level being 8640, 8860, and 9543 feet. On these lofty plateaus the snow-capped Andes rise among which the peaks of the Chimborazo, 20,498 feet, and of the Cotopaxi, 19,113 feet, are the highest in Ecuador. In consequence of these physical features the country is subject to volcanoes of which there are sixteen and to earthquakes which occur frequently. On account of altitude there is a variety of climate, soil, and products. In the lowlands it is intensely hot and there cacao, sugar-cane, tobacco, coffee, cotton, bananas, and other tropical fruits are grown. The table-lands, called paramos, are by their moderate and uniform temperature rendered most delightful, like paradise, and produce the cereals of tem-

perate climates, especially wheat, also potatoes, abundantly. The higher regions are marked by hyperborean cold and are not adapted to agriculture. The rainfall is different in different localities. In the basin of the Guayaquil there is regularly a wet season. From this basin northwestward almost perpetual drought prevails, while towards the east the upper tributaries of the Amazon are said to be fed by almost perpetual rains.

The extensive forests contain numerous species of useful trees, such as the *phytelephas maorocarpa* which yields the commercial product known as vegetable ivory, and the *carludovica palmata* furnishing the fibre from which Panama hats are made. Other valuable trees are the *chinchona* from whose bark quinine is obtained, the mangrove used for tanning purposes, and the *bomba ceiba*, or silk cotton tree, which yields the valuable commercial product known as kapok. — Gold, silver, iron, copper, coal, and other minerals exist in the republic; the mines, however, have been worked with but little success.

STATISTICAL REPORT.

The republic of Ecuador has an area of 116,000 square miles, equal to the combined areas of the states Missouri and Arkansas, and a population of 1,500,000, equal to 13 per square mile. It is divided politically into 16 provinces and one territory. The Galapagos islands, about 730 miles off the coast, constitute the one territory, have an area of 2400 square miles, and a population of a few more than 500.

The provinces are divided into cantons and parishes. The administration of the provinces is in the hands of governors who are appointed by the president who also appoints the executive officers of the cantons. The councilors of the parishes are elected by the people and have the duty to prescribe the budget and to propose improvements.

The principal cities with their populations are Quito, the capital, 80,000, Guayaquil 75,000, Cuenca 40,000, Riobamba 18,000.

The latest official publication of the foreign trade of Ecuador is for the year 1910, from which it appears that the imports were \$8,007,629 and the exports \$13,638,308, amounting to the total of \$21,645,937. The imports for the preceding year were \$9,090,262, the exports were \$12,091,096, totaling the sum of \$21,181,358. Comparing the two years 1909 and 1910, there is a decrease in imports of \$1,082,633 and an increase in exports of \$1,547,212, or a net increase in the foreign trade of \$464,579.

The imports, by countries of origin, for the year 1910 and the exports to those countries were as follows:

COUNTRIES	IMPORTS	EXPORTS
United Kingdom	\$2,455,599	\$1,136,827
United States	2,249,674	4,082,112
Germany	1,570,903	2,243,607
France	525,534	4,785,613
Italy	336,454	150,176
Belgium	325,351
Spain	271,390	399,656
Salvador	77,127
Peru	59,763	71,954
Chile	53,836	383,071
Other Countries	81,998	385,352
Total	\$8,007,629	\$13,638,308

According to the report of Consul General Dietrich, the exports by articles for 1911 were:

Cocoa beans	\$8,012,296	Fruits	\$ 71,900
Panama hats	1,404,501	Gold ore	225,750
Coffee	1,119,558	Gold	37,321
Ivory nuts	868,694	Money	645
Rubber	682,557	Miscellaneous	924,515
Hides	209,996		
		Total	\$13,558,033

Cacao is the staple agricultural product and the largest export article of Ecuador. This country's supply is equal to that of Brazil or of the East Indias, and France usually buys the larger half of it. In 1910 Ecuador's 35,928 tons of cacao went to the following countries:

COUNTRIES	AMOUNTS	VALUE
		Sucres
France	19,658 tons	8,986,855
United States	8,162 "	3,461,878
Germany	3,945 "	1,724,887
Spain	1,605 "	776,960
United Kingdom	1,703 "	793,239
Austria-Hungary	488 "	225,107
Netherlands	367 "	179,040
Total	35,928 tons	16,057,966

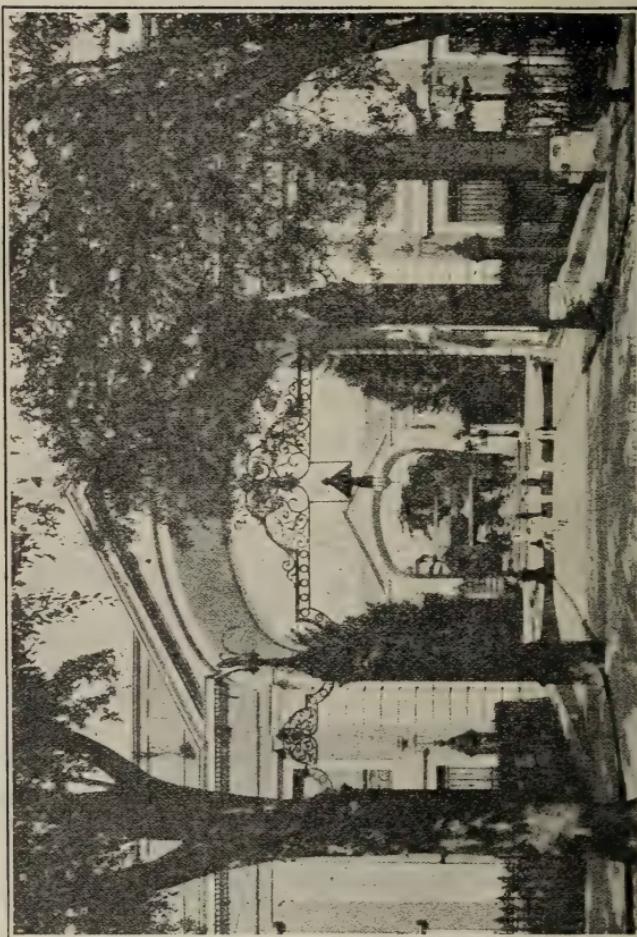
A sucre has the value of 48.6 cents United States gold; 10 sucres equal £1 sterling. After cacao, the most valuable export of the republic is the wild product known as taque, or vegetable ivory, from which buttons are made. Ecuador furnishes the world the largest supply of this article, the quantity exported annually being about 48,000,000 pounds. Alligator skins amounted to 48,134 kilos in 1910, which all went to the United States.

The total extent of railway lines in operation is a little over 316 miles. The Guayaquil and Quito Railway Company completed the construction of its road which runs from Guayaquil to the capital, on June 25th, 1908, and since that date trains, both passenger and freight, have been running regularly between the two cities. The regular passenger trains run during the day only and make the trip of 297 miles in two days, while formerly by mule and on foot it ordinarily required 12 to 15 days to go over the same route. Since the completion of this line the people of Quito and of the whole republic are looking forward to a new era of progress and well they may; for the government has since then taken various additional steps forward. Besides the railroads mentioned the government has begun work on the Ambato to Curaray Railway. The entire line has been surveyed, a large part of the roadway has been staked off ready for grading, and masonry work was begun in March, 1913. The government plans to finish the work of construction in about two and a half years; but if it were decided to have the road built under contract, it would probably be completed in about half that time, as a number of contractors could be employed in the different phases of work. The road will pass through the province of Tungurahua, will traverse a rich agricultural, stock-raising, mining, and forestal section of Ecuador, and will open up a vast territory in the eastern part of the country exceedingly rich in natural wealth.

Another step forward is the installation of an electric power plant and tramway line in Quito. The installation will be completed and a section of the line be placed in operation on or before April 1st, 1914. — And, indeed, a wireless telegraph installation has been erected at Guayaquil, port of Ecuador, which is capable of sending messages as far as Paita, Peru, whence it may be continued to Lima and Arequipa and to Valparaiso, Chile.

In 1909 there was a successful national exposition held in Quito to celebrate the centennial anniversary of the move-

ment for independence. This was really an international exhibit, for it attracted the attention of the larger nations of the world. After the close of the exposition arrangements were made with the government of Ecuador to keep the United States pavilion open in order to give the public an opportunity to see new articles which had recently arrived from this country and to the end that manufacturers, merchants and the consuming public might the more thoroughly acquaint themselves with the manufactured products of the United States.



CAPITOL AT CARACAS, VENEZUELA

REPUBLIC OF VENEZUELA.

1831 to 1912.

In the year 1831, soon after Bolivar's death, Venezuela separated from the Colombian Confederation and elected General Joseph A. Paez, the celebrated hero of the revolution, her first president. Subsequent endeavors to induce Venezuela to return to the confederation, failed completely. Under succeeding administrations attempts to change the then existing form of government were made and on February 20th, 1859, Venezuela declared herself, by a vote of a majority of her citizens, in favor of a federal republic. The federal form of government was then introduced and the country has ever since been managed by federal administrations. When *John Falcom* who was elected president in 1865 was in office, he was confronted by the unionists who strove to overthrow the federal government. They were successful in 1868 when the president fled from the capital; but two years later the federals regained the supremacy. In 1891 the congress of Venezuela took some steps forward on the way of progress, by enacting laws of far reaching importance; such as, abolition of the last traces of slavery and of the death penalty, guaranty of liberty of worship and nullification of the president's right of veto, and by giving the people other important civil and political rights which had previously been withheld. When President Cipriano Castro withdrew from the administration and the country November, 1908, *General John V. Gomez*, the present incumbent of the presidency, assumed the official duties, was elected provisional president by congress August, 1909, and constitutional president April 24th, 1910, for a term of four years.

The constitution, at present in vogue, was adopted by the national congress August 5th, 1909; it leaves the country the



JOHN V. GOMEZ
President of Venezuela

federal, representative republican form of government and names the republic *The United States of Venezuela*, making it one of the three United States of South America. The various states are entirely autonomous in their internal government, with certain limited powers only vested in the federal government. The legislative authority is vested in a congress of two houses—the senate and the chamber of deputies. The executive power is vested in a president, a cabinet of ministers who act in conjunction with the president, and a council of government that co-operates with him in certain cases provided for in the constitution. The president is elected by the national congress for four years.—The judiciary comprises the high federal court, the court of cassation, several courts of appeal, and a number of minor courts. — Caracas is the seat of the federal authority, but when unforeseen circumstances should arise the executive power may fix its residence at any other place within the federal district. The republic is composed of 22 states, 2 territories, and a federal district. The states are equal as political entities, each having a legislative assembly whose members are elected in conformity with the respective state constitutions. The executive power of each state consists of a governor, a secretary-general, and a council of government. The states are divided into districts and the latter into municipalities, each district having a municipal council and each municipality a communal board.

Geographically Venezuela may be divided into three distinct zones; namely, the extensive plains and river valleys, known as the Llanos and affording excellent pasturage for numerous herds of cattle; the mountain sections, formed by

three distinct systems; and the dry and healthful table-lands, or plateaus. The coastline, from east to west, i. e. from the delta of the river Orinoco to the boundary line of Colombia, is 1584 miles. The east section of the coastline, 150 miles long and consisting mostly of the Orinoco delta, is washed by the Atlantic Ocean and is very low. With slight exceptions Venezuela is abundantly watered. Her great river is the Orinoco which drains by far the greater section of the country by means of its long tributaries. Numerous smaller streams flow north into the Caribbean Sea and into Lake Maracaibo, the largest lake of the country. The Andes enter Venezuela from the west and divide into two branches. However, south and southeast of the Orinoco are the most mountainous districts,—a vast, confused, and mostly unexplored region. The country comprises vast table-lands known under the names Llanos, Paramos, Mesas, and Pinos. Extensive low, marshy tracts along the coasts and the lake and river banks are abundantly fertile during the dry season; indeed, for the most part the soil of Venezuela is fertile. In the mountainous districts of the southeast there are great tracts adapted for the raising of grains. Of this region the lands not more than 2000 feet above sea-level are called tierras calidas, or hot lands; those between 2000 and 7000 feet above sea-level are called tierras templadas, or temperate lands; and those above 7000 feet are called tierras frias, or cold lands, in which the average temperature is 49 degrees F. and which are mostly uninhabited. The warmest tracts are the palm-lands; and the sago-palm and cocoa-palm, and others grow here to colossal size and yield most valuable products. Among the forest trees are mahogany, satinwood, rosewood, black and white ebony, and caoutchouc; and there are forests of the chinchona or Peruvian bark tree. The coca and coffee trees, sugar-cane, indigo and cotton plants are cultivated. Vegetables in great variety are raised and tobacco is a profitable crop. The slopes of the mountains are heavily wooded and

contain timber in abundance and many useful medicinal plants; viz., divi divi, the pods of which furnish an excellent material for tanning; Maclura tinctoria, producing fustic and yielding an excellent yellow dye; plants from which indigo and rubber are gained; and numerous cabinet and useful woods. — Among wild animals the puma, ounce, and wild-cat abound; the jaguar is becoming rare. The alligator, crocodile, boa-constrictor, and rattlesnake are found. Of domestic animals great herds of wild horses roam over the llanos; and mules, asses, sheep, goats, and pigs are reared. Agriculture is the great pursuit, though only about one-tenth of the area is under cultivation. Manufactures are few; commerce is important and will be more so when more roads are constructed and mules will be replaced by other means of conveyance. The principal articles of export are coffee, cotton, cacao, sugar, indigo, tobacco, salt, hides, live stock, tallow, horns, sarsaparilla, dyewoods, and timber. The imports are manufactured goods, provisions, and wine. — The mines produce precious and useful metals—gold, silver, copper, and lead. The various asphalt lakes yield the qualities of asphaltum, while along the coast pearls are found at different points.

STATISTICAL REPORT.

According to data furnished by the director-general of the Venezuelan bureau of statistics, the United States of Venezuela have an area of 393,976 square miles, which is twice as large as all the New England States and New York, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia combined. Over this vast area a population of only 2,713,703 is distributed, averaging 6.8 persons per square mile. The principal cities and their populations are: Caracas, the capital, 75,000, Maracaibo 55,000, Valencia 45,000; Margarita Island, the seat of pearl fisheries, has a population of 25,000.

The foreign commerce of Venezuela, compiled from official reports for the year 1911, amounted to \$41,079,273.20; of

which \$18,394,889.53 was imports and \$22,684,383.67 was exports. The gain for the year over 1910 in imports was \$6,007,337.65 and in exports \$4,735,812.64, or a total gain of \$10,743,150.29.

The imports into Venezuela for the year 1911, by countries of origin, and the exports to those countries were as follows:

COUNTRIES	IMPORTS	EXPORTS
United Kingdom	\$5,253,681.77	\$1,266,377.22
United States	5,219,558.28	7,083,261.05
Germany	3,195,945.22	4,269,210.96
France	1,857,564.11	6,120,445.11
Netherlands	1,322,770.19	363,365.74
Spain	666,350.54	1,308,334.37
Italy	597,339.42	142,504.92
Trinidad	128,522.77	781,834.86
Belgium	126,663.53	59,129.43
Curacao	14,274.15	700,229.73
Colombia	4,261.35	95,409.55
Austria-Hungary	2,560.46	283,629.72
Other Countries	759.64	178,014.42
Total	\$18,394,889.53	\$22,684,383.67

The principal articles of export for the years 1910 and 1911 were as follows:

ARTICLES	1910	1911
	Bolivars	Bolivars
Coffee	41,713,856	59,616,625
Cacao	17,521,938	18,659,956
Balata	11,367,369	12,689,473
Cattle hides	4,831,503	6,049,127
Gold	1,604,553	3,337,886
Goat and kid skins	1,970,561	2,654,492
Rubber	4,414,103	2,667,910
Herron plumes (algrettes)	697,378	1,605,423

ARTICLES	1910	1911
Asphalt	948,876	1,386,184
Copper ore	785,000	1,310,400
Beef cattle	1,004,353	1,081,046
Divi divi	549,011	835,424
Raw sugar	766,049	744,646
Tonka beans	33,187	710,742
Frozen beef	393,915	540,316
Deer skins	279,308	296,901
Sea salt	68,100	290,465
Balsam of copaiba	225,949	271,030
Pearls	409,130	- 242,500
Cocoanuts	59,851	219,461
Cotton	65,550	219,226
Feathers	177,577	179,866

The exploitation of native products forms the basis for Venezuela's industrial life. The area under coffee is estimated at about 200,000 acres, the number of coffee estates being over 33,000. Cacao growers operate 5000 estates and there are many sugar plantations. Recent figures indicate an increase in the exports of Venezuela's coffee, cacao, and other products.

The live stock of the country is estimated at over 6,000,000 head of cattle, 1,600,000 goats, and 1,600,000 pigs.

In the principal cities, like Caracas, Valencia, Maracaibo, and Puerto Cabello, considerable manufacturing for local use is done. In Valencia a fine plant for the manufacture of cotton cloth has been established. There are several electric plants furnishing power to nearby cities. In Caracas the newly installed tramway system is run by electricity.

The total length of railway in operation is about 542 miles. The number of lines, according to latest information, was twelve with an invested capital of over \$40,000,000. The waterways of Venezuela form important means of communication and transportation; for there are no fewer than 70 navigable rivers in the country, with a total navigable length

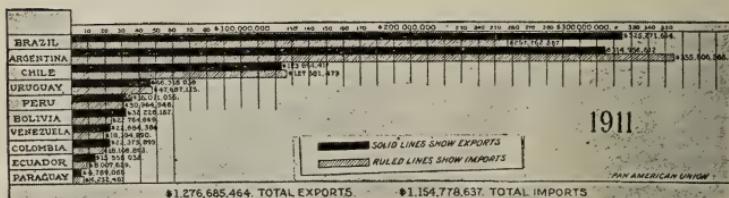
of over 6000 miles, of which the mighty Orinoco, the third largest river of the continent, with its tributaries, furnishes nearly 4000 miles. The more important of the other navigable rivers are the Apure, the Portuguesa, the Yaracuy, and the Escalante, all of which are navigable for steam launches and flat-bottomed boats only. Ocean going vessels enter Lake Maracaibo, which covers an area of 8000 square miles and is navigable in its entirety. This lake is connected with the gulf of Venezuela and the Caribbean Sea by means of a strait 34 miles in length and from 5 to 9 miles wide. With her favorable geographical position on the Caribbean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean and with a coastline of more than 1700 miles, Venezuela possesses not fewer than 50 bays and 32 ports. The most important of the latter is La Guira, the commercial center of the republic and port of the capital, as also the port of call for all North American and European liners. Ciudad Bolivar, 373 miles inland on the Orinoco, is the most important inland port and commercial town.

According to the geographer Codazzi, Venezuela contains 154,250 square kilometers of cultivable lands, 333,954 square kilometers of lands suitable for stock raising, and 58,954 kilometers of lands that can not be utilized for agricultural and stock-raising purposes. The government of Venezuela desires that foreign capital flow into the republic and suggests that capitalists interested in the investments of funds in the country study the Venezuelan laws, make a careful examination of conditions, and secure exact data concerning the investment of funds in railway and other enterprises.

RÉSUMÉ OF THE SOUTH AMERICAN COUNTRIES.

COUNTRIES	Areas in sq. m.	Population	Inhabitants per sq. m.
Brazil	3,218,130	20,515,000	6.4
Argentina	1,139,979	6,989,023	6.13
Peru	679,600	4,500,000	6.6
Colombia	438,436	4,320,000	10.
Chile	291,500	3,500,000	12.
Venezuela	393,976	2,713,703	6.8
Bolivia	708,195	2,267,935	3.2
Ecuador	116,000	1,500,000	13.
Uruguay	72,210	1,042,686	14.3
Paraguay	171,815	800,000	4.6
Guianas { English	76,000	287,981	3.8
Dutch	46,000	62,469	1.4
French	31,000	25,600	.8
Total	7,382,841	48,524,397	6.57

South American Exports and Imports of 1911



APPENDIX.

Forces at Work in the Development of South America.

South America has been called "The Continent of Opportunity." Its soil is rich, its climate beautiful; its mines are inexhaustible, its forests almost impenetrable. Its people, however, lack development of intellect, of conscience, in religion. The forces that will bring South America up to a higher standard, that will bring it to the front, are threefold—material, intellectual, religious.

1. *Material forces.* We learned that agriculture and cattle raising are progressing in the most countries, that railway lines are being extended in all directions, that rivers and coast lines are navigated. Into almost all the countries the most modern inventions; such as, railroads, telegraphs, telephones, electric plants etc. have been introduced. — Increase in the commercial pursuit shows the trend of a country, of a continent. Brazil's foreign commerce has grown in the last decade from \$235,000,000 to \$583,034,171. Argentina's foreign trade has increased in the same years from \$193,000,000 to \$670,762,977, an astonishing growth for a nation of less than seven million people. Argentina can undeniably give lodgment to 100,000,000 inhabitants and can feed them cheaply. Chile's foreign trade has increased in the last decade from \$100,000,000 to \$248,00,000; she is extending her railway system, developing her resources, and preparing herself to occupy a very forward position amongst the South American republics. The foreign trade of Peru has grown from \$25,000,000 to \$62,000,000 in the last decade and the republic is experiencing a new life that augurs well for the future. Similar facts might be mentioned in regard to the commercial

progress of Colombia, Venezuela, Uruguay, Bolivia, and Ecuador; only Paraguay is increasing its commerce slowly.—Industries are still in their infancy and the industrial plants are few. Raw materials and the means to develop the natural resources are at hand; it, however, requires foreign capital and ingenuity to bring them to the use of men. — The immigration statistics show that about 70 per cent as large a number of foreigners come to South America as pass through all our Atlantic ports.

The Panama canal will be an effective means in the material development of the southern continent, at least of its west coast. With the opening of the canal a new and brighter day will dawn for the western countries. The isthmian waterway will bring Valparaiso, Chile's main port, 4000 miles and Guayaquil, Ecuador's principal harbor, 8600 miles nearer to New York. A Chilean steamship company whose steamers now maintain the passenger traffic between Valparaiso and Panama, has resolved to send their vessels via the canal directly to New York. It will be a straight route from south to north. The people of the United States are not merely looking southward to the canal, they are looking beyond it and there they see the coasts of Colombia, of Ecuador, of Peru, of Chile. The farther they look the brighter their view is becoming; for far-away Chile affords the brightest prospects. We anticipate a lively intercourse between our east coast and South America's promising west coast through the isthmian waterway.

2. Intellectual forces. Public instruction and higher education are the second forces at work in the development of South America. Illiteracy is still surprisingly great. The poor who constitute by far the larger part of the populations, in some countries seventy-five or even eighty per cent, are ignorant, superstitious, immoral, very degraded. Nuns and monks were the only teachers in the bygone past. They taught the children who came to the convents mainly reading,

so as to read the biographies of saints and to learn prayers to the virgin by heart. Even this meager teaching was by no means general or universal; for but a small per cent of a country's youth went to the convents for instruction. It is evident that those who attended did not obtain a preparation for life, since besides reading they did not learn any of the rudimentary branches of instruction. Girls of 20 years of age who had been with the nuns in a city of 45,000 people, came to my school for the purpose of learning to write and to cipher because the nuns had not taught that; and they were obliged to begin with the first lines in writing and the first figures in arithmetic.

The idea of public education took hold of the liberal governments of various republics in the latter half of the last century. The idea of a public school system is decidedly republican and liberal in South America. The liberal governments gained the conviction that a republic is prosperous and strong only when the masses of the people are educated and thus undertook movements towards universal education in government schools. They took this branch, as also some other branches, of public welfare, out of the hands of the priesthood by opening schools independent of priests and the church. Such changes were not brought about without bitter fights of the liberal legislatures with the clergy and of the liberal parties with the clerical parties. These fights were tenacious and continuous, and they were glorious; for they terminated with the defeat of the power that had kept the masses in ignorance, darkness, and degradation. The establishment of public schools throughout all the South American countries is a mighty force to bring the common people upward and forward, to somewhat higher planes of thinking and living. The children who have obtained better instruction will not live the lazy, filthy, low lives of their ancestors.

When we now ask the question: What is being done in the line of public instruction? we wish to allude to the three

most awakened countries only, concluding with a statistic of schools of all the countries.

In Chile primary education is absolutely free, i. e. not compulsory. The liberal government is gradually extending the school system over the country. At the close of 1911 there were 2896 elementary schools with 4729 teachers and an attendance of 375,274 pupils; this attendance is about 10 per cent of the population. The government even provides school books and utensils for those pupils whose parents are too poor to buy them. Fifteen normal schools are dispersed throughout the republic in which young men and women are educated to teach in the common schools. Secondary instruction is imparted in the National Institute at Santiago and in the various lyceums of which there is one in every provincial capital and in every city of some importance. In 1907 there were 39 of these lyceums for men and 30 for women. The National University of Santiago which is attended by about 3000 students provides the highest education. Besides the institutions mentioned Chile has commercial, industrial, agricultural, and military schools.

In Chile there are published some 400 papers and periodicals—daily, weekly, bi-weekly, and monthly—some of which, especially the large newspapers of Santiago and Valparaiso, are thoroughly modern and up-to-date, having an excellent telegraphic news service.

In the Argentine Republic public instruction is, as commonly, divided into three classes — primary, secondary, and higher. Primary education is exempt from fees and is compulsory for children from 6 to 14 years of age. In 1909 there were 4744 public government schools for primary instruction in the republic with 18,061 teachers and an enrollment of 668,534 pupils. Besides these schools which the federal government maintains, the provinces also support numerous schools. The total attendance in 1909 was 10 per cent of the population, and a school census, taken in that year, showed

that the number of children of school age in the republic was 1,200,212 who were about 20 per cent of the population. From these figures it follows that only one-half of the children of school age actually attended school. The schools in the capital and provinces of Argentina are under the supervision of a national council of education which occupies a handsome building in the city of Buenos Aires. Argentina's symmetrically developed system of education was introduced by D. F. Sarmiento who was president of the republic from 1868 to 1874. Previous to his presidency he had been the Argentine minister in the United States and he doubtless brought the plan of our public school system to his native country.—The South American public schools, however, are government schools and are maintained by the governments, while those of our country belong to the districts in which they are located.

Secondary education in Argentina is not compulsory, but practically free, only a small fee being charged for registration etc. Sixteen lyceums and thirty-five normal schools situated in all the larger cities of the republic, provide for secondary or preparatory education.

The national Universities at Cordoba and Buenos Aires and the provincial universities at La Plata, Santa Fe, and Parana impart higher education, having faculties for law and medicine, for exact, physical, natural, and social sciences, for literature and philosophy. The rector of the Buenos Aires university reported that in the scholastic year 1908-9 the institution had been frequented by 4364 students who were thus classified: Faculty of law and social sciences 1051, faculty of philosophy and letters 210, faculty of medicine 2501, faculty of exact, physical, natural sciences 602. Plans have been prepared to increase the number of university buildings. Besides the schools and institutions of learning mentioned the Argentine government maintains a large number of other educational plants that serve various public purposes.

The press is well represented in the republic. While

there are newspapers printed in all the cities and even in the smaller towns, in the city of Buenos Aires alone are 482 publications of all kinds, 66 of which are published daily, 16 thrice a week, 14 twice a week, 191 are weeklies, and 64 monthlies, others issue irregularly. The press of Buenos Aires is the most polyglot of any city in the world; for there are 422 publications in the language of the country, i. e. in Spanish, 22 in Italian, 8 in German, 8 in English, 8 in French, and one in Arabic. The Danish, Norwegian, Swedish, Basque, Russian, Dutch, and other colonies, all have their respective organs.

Notwithstanding these mighty educational forces 50 per cent of the Argentine population is still illiterate.

In Brazil the interest in public education awoke with Dom Pedro's I. declaration of independence in 1822. The desire for the development of intellectual life was manifested throughout the country and a decree was issued in 1823, authorizing any citizen to establish a private school without a previous special license or authority. Congress is empowered by the provisions of the constitution to promote in the country the development of literature, arts, and sciences; all instruction given in public institutions, however, shall be secular. Primary education is compulsory in some states, and even in the states which are farthest removed from the capital and least populous, efforts have been made to enforce the compulsory system which is hoped to achieve good results. The instruction of the Brazilian youth is highly necessary; for the attendance of Brazil's public schools was in late years only two per cent of the population and 84 per cent of the people were still illiterate. According to reports compiled by the statistical bureau of Rio de Janeiro the primary schools of the republic numbered 11,147 with a total enrolment of 565,722 pupils, and the secondary schools numbered 327 with a matriculation of 30,258 pupils. These figures comprised both public and private schools.

Brazil has no real university. The national institutions devoted to higher or university education are the two law schools of Pernambuco and Sao Paulo, the medical, the fine arts, and the polytechnic schools of Rio de Janeiro, the medical school of Bahia, and the mining school of Ouro Preto in the state of Minas Geraes. A presidential decree, dated September 23rd, 1909, authorized the establishment of free industrial schools in the capitals of the states.

The use of telephones has become very general in Brazil. There are at present 39 telephone systems each of which has from 2200 to 3500 subscribers. Of these systems 15 are German, 9 are Kellogg, 3 are Bell, 4 are American, and the others are Swedish and French. The capitals of the companies who operate these lines vary from \$800 to \$1,190,000. The government has granted concessions for the laying of a cable from Recife to the Madeira Island and of cables on the Brazilian coast. A German company was preparing to lay a cable from Recife to Monravia in Liberia.

Primary Schools of the South American Republics.

REPUBLICS	SCHOOLS	TEACHERS	PUPILS
Brazil	11,147	565,922
Argentina	4,774	18,061	668,534
Chile	2,896	4,729	375,274
Colombia	2,987	235,000
Peru	2,339	3,105	162,298
Ecuador	1,200	70,000
Uruguay	791	74,896
Venezuela	1,543	48,718
Paraguay	344	756	40,605
Bolivia	62,000

3. *Religious forces.* The third of the forces which are at work in the development of South America is Protestant

mission work. Though we bring this last it is not the least. Mission work is the main force, the vital power; it is the very essence of all true development. The spreading of the Word of God and the preaching of Christ's Gospel are the great need of the people of the southern continent. They are contributing mightily to popular enlightenment, to true liberty of consciences and sentiments, and to the progressiveness that is needed everywhere.

Though it is neither within the scope of this work nor its object to prove the necessity of Protestant mission work in South America, yet a few general thoughts may be in place. The main reason why the southern republics stay so far behind the United States of America in all-sided development, lies in the fact that they have been under the sway and influence of the Roman Catholic Church of the Spanish type from the beginning. This church trained the masses in superstition, but did not lead them on in pure faith; it kept them in deterioration of consciences and in immorality, but did not bring them up in righteousness; it kept the people in ignorance and moral depravity, but did not build elevated characters, did not develop noble manhood and womanhood. The most priests being immoral themselves, immorality and vices are looked upon as belonging to public life, as necessary inherent elements of home and society life, and are not condemned by a public conscience or even censured. The deplorable lot of the ignorant masses is not simply material poverty, but poverty of intellect, of heart, of consciences also; their manner of living is consequently very low. Since the dominating church did do nothing to elevate the degraded classes, the liberal parties of the various countries took up a fight with the clerical parties for the purpose of doing their unfortunate countrymen some good. They enacted laws and introduced measures by which the lowly might be lifted out of their degradation and their living conditions might be improved. In the political and legislative battles that were fought, many liberals were turned

out of the Roman Church, they being her opponents, and fell into infidelity. As the established church can neither lift the poor benighted classes out of the miry clay nor regain the liberals who are her enemies, Protestant mission work has a call and a necessity. Liberal thought and sentiment has in various countries advanced to such a degree that it is tying the hands of the priests and the bishops and that it has become the open door for the missionaries and the Bible.

What is being done to develop South America religiously? After a number of forerunners who labored heroically, after some preliminary operations that have been successful, there are to be mentioned four church organizations which are at present at work in the evangelization of the South American people.

1. *The Methodist Episcopal Church* began work in Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires in 1835 through the activity of Rev. F. E. Pitts who preached to English speaking people in both cities. In the following year one missionary was sent to each of those capitals and congregations were organized. The Spanish work in the Argentine Republic was begun in 1867. Rev. William Taylor, afterwards Bishop of Africa, inaugurated mission work on the west coast in 1878. The work in Chile pre-eminently spread fast and is exerting a strong influence. The Methodist Episcopal Church has at present missions in Panama, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Chile, Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, at Para in Brazil and up the Amazon river, and altogether has the most extensive work of any of the American denominations in South America. In 1876 the work in Brazil was taken up by the Methodist Episcopal Church South, except at Para and the stations along the Amazon.

2. *The American and Foreign Christian Union* supported by various Protestants in the United States of America, began evangelical work on the west coast 1850. Its missions were

generally, if not entirely, among English speaking people and in the ports where such persons were found in the greatest numbers. Rev. David Trumbull, an American, started from the United States in 1845 under the appointment of the Foreign Evangelical Society and for many years rendered most efficient service in Valparaiso, Chile, under the above Union. The Presbyterian Church of the United States began mission work in Colombia and in its capital, Bogata, in 1856. The mission board of that church opened work also in various ports of Brazil in the early sixties. In 1873 the American and Foreign Christian Union turned its Chilean work over to the Presbyterian Board whose activity has been greatly prosperous in Chile and in southern Brazil.

3. *Several societies* which are essentially Anglican are also doing missionary work on that continent. The South American Missionary Society is at work in Buenos Aires where preaching services and schools are maintained. The Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States began work in southern Brazil and in Rio de Janeiro. The Episcopal mission work is a diocese which is superintended by a resident bishop.

4. *The Southern Baptist Convention* of the United States began work in Brazil in 1882. The missions of the society fringe the Brazilian coast for more than 3000 miles and extend up the Amazon 1000 miles to Manaos. Stations have been founded in every state, save one.

Besides these four well established churches, a number of auxiliary forces are doing effective and heroic work on the southern continent and contribute strongly to the religious development of the people. *Mission schools* are established in all the capitals and commercial centers of the republics. They are exerting a far reaching influence as both space and time are concerned; for they educate and train the coming generation. To bring the youth under Protestant influence,

to train young men and women in institutions where the Bible is at home, will be of telling effect in the future. As example may serve Santiago College which Dr. Ira H. La Fetra and his efficient wife opened for girls in Chile's capital in 1880. The institution which in the course of 28 years they developed to a university standard, was in the latter years attended by 340 pupils who came from the best homes of the capital, came from many other cities and towns of the republic, and even from Peru and Guayaquil. Santiago College is known as the best girls' school on the west coast. Its graduates are teachers in other schools and colleges and some become wives of men in prominent positions. There are also Methodist mission schools in Concepcion and Iquique, in Lima and Buenos Aires, and in many other cities of the continent. The Presbyterian Instituto Ingles in Santiago is a boys' school and is also doing efficient work. The institute has an opportunity of doing a work for South America which may be of scarcely less importance than the work which Robert College on the Bosporus is doing for the Balkan states.

Another auxiliary agency of mission work is *the Bible Societies*. In distributing the Bible members of many denominations unite. It has been estimated that through such agencies two million copies of the sacred Scriptures have been circulated in Spanish and Portuguese South America. By the distribution of the Scriptures these societies often prepare the way for the regular mission work of the churches. Frequently *the colporteur* is a plain man, but he travels far and wide on horseback or otherwise, going over a considerable part of the continent and touching points where the professional missionary preacher would not be tolerated. There he sells or gives away his Bibles and in address or conversation plants the seed of truth from which after a while the missionary may gather the harvest. Not unfrequently the colporteur takes his life in his hands and becomes a hero quite as much as the soldier on the field of battle. Some were killed, others imprisoned for

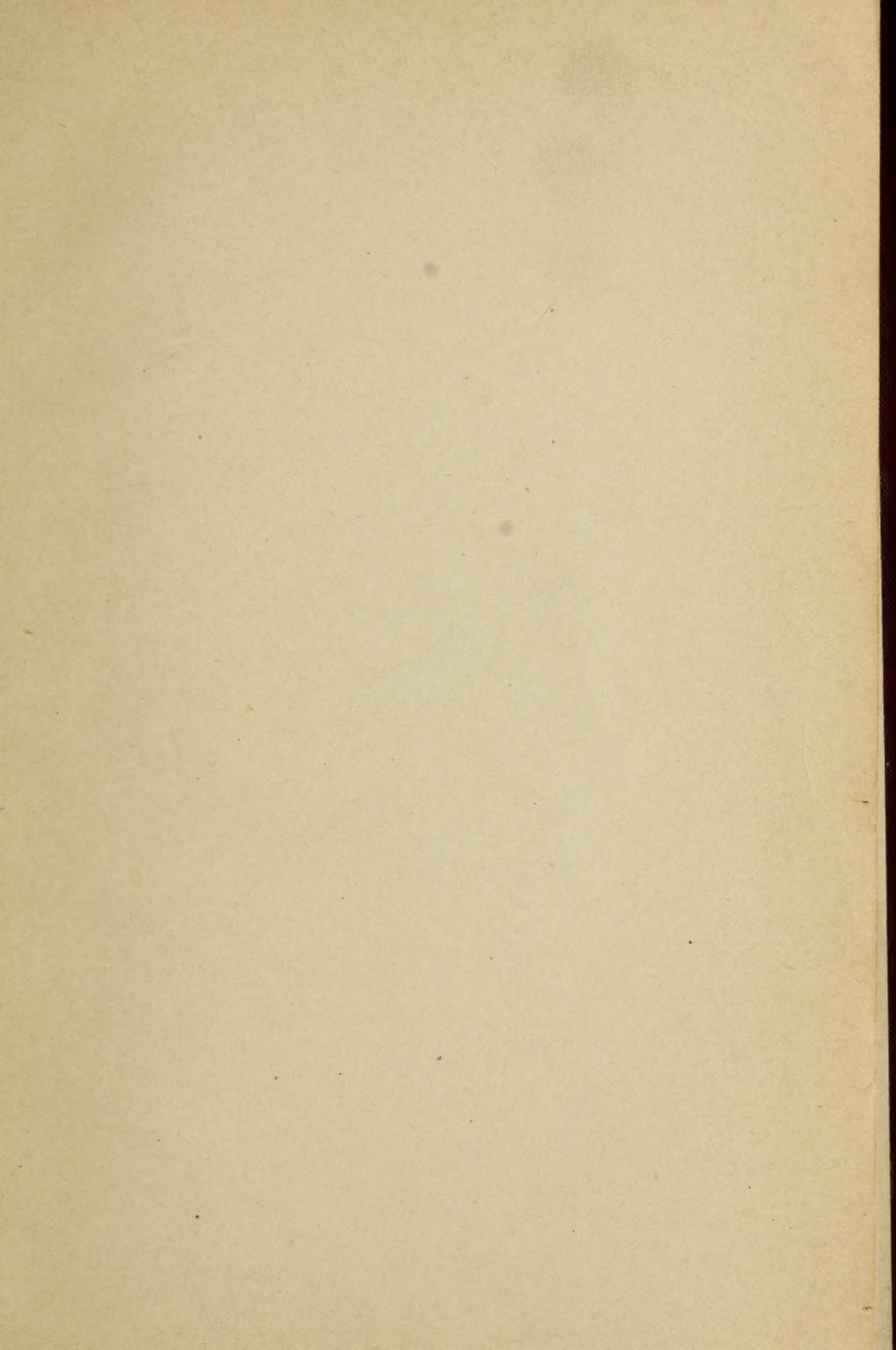
years for the Word's sake. One, being imprisoned, sold all his Bibles to his fellow prisoners.

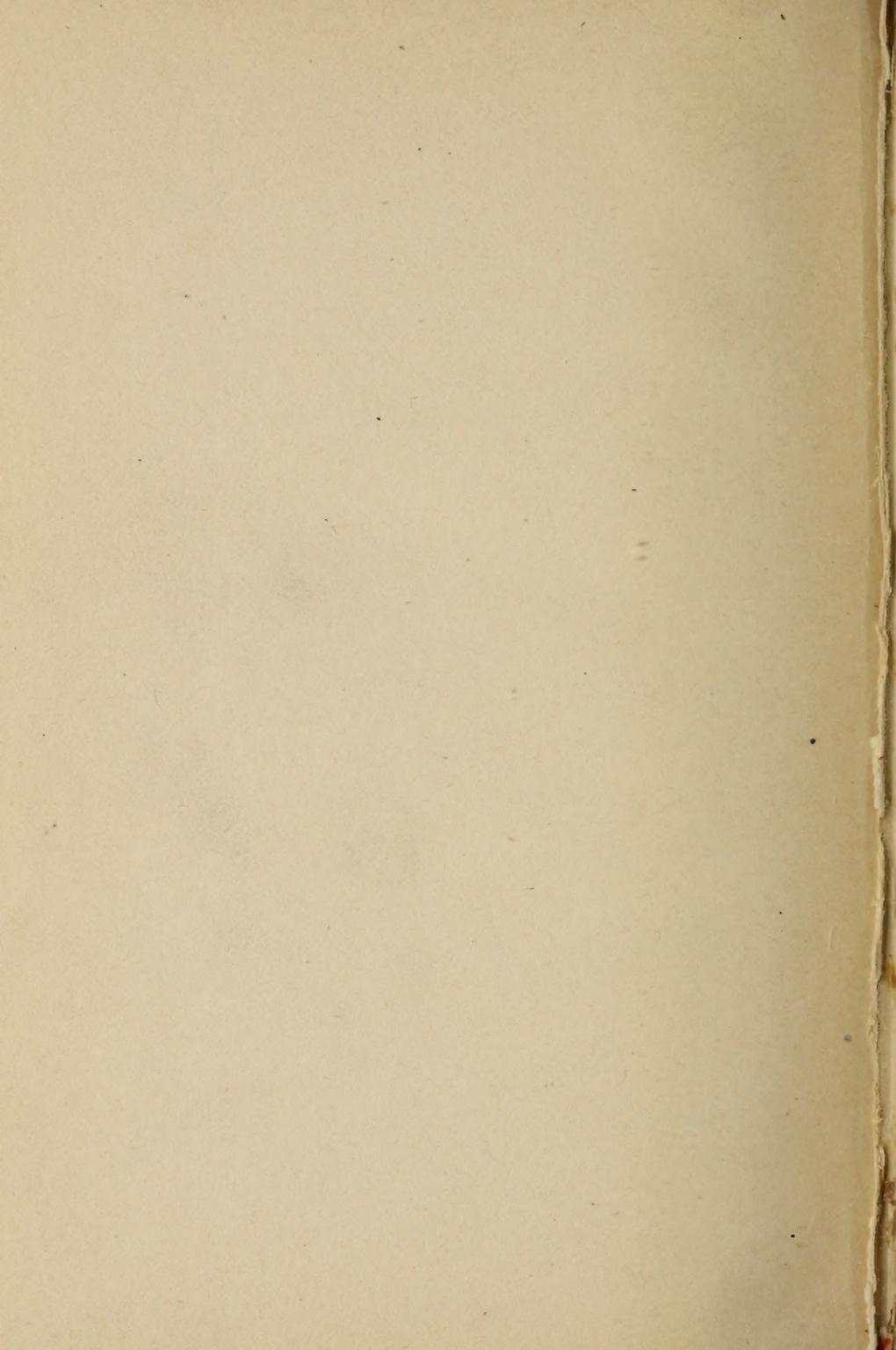
As last auxiliary force of the direct gospel work we mention the *Young Men's Christian Association*. The Association is established in Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires, Sao Paulo, Pernambuco, Montevideo, and a secretary will now already have entered Santiago, Chile. The total membership was 3056 already some years ago, composed of native South Americans, Anglo Saxons, and other Europeans, the former predominating. The chief opportunities of the Association lie in the government student centers, the great commercial and political centers, among the younger merchant and professional classes, both native and foreign, and among the liberal elements who have broken away from the established church. The association will find a needy field of labor in the South American cities, as vice is very general and considered an inherent element of daily life. I know of young men who went down into degradation and some into death soon after they had arrived from Europe. — The *Young Women's Christian Association* commenced work in Buenos Aires in 1906 where there is a membership of 500. Other centers are now under consideration. The large number of young women away from home, the unparalleled need of preventive work, and the expense of living, make a field for work among young women unexcelled in opportunity.

There are in all South America 800 missionaries, men and women, from Great Britain, the continent of Europe, Canada, and the United States. In Canada and the United States there is on an average one Protestant minister for every 514 persons. In South America each missionary has a constituency of about 50,000, indicating a need in proportion of population 100 times as great as in the Protestant countries of North America.

These are some of the events in the missionary occupation of South America, and it will be seen that they are of comparatively recent dates.

There, however, is *hope and cheer* in the conditions of the South American republics. The three forces which are at work—the material, the intellectual, and the religious forces,—have set new ideals before the people, have planted new aspirations in many breasts. The various republics are leaving anarchy, petty squabbings, and misrule behind, and are advancing toward stable, responsible governments, based more and more upon the will of the people; true republicanism is growing stronger with every decade. Thus the South American people are fronting in the right direction, their faces are turned towards the rising of the sun. They will lead better lives, will rise to higher planes of morality and efficiency as they learn to know Him who is the Way, the Truth, and the Life.





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